The British Empire

At Home and Abroad

WAL PAGET.

THE QUEEN PROCLAIMED EMPRESS OF INDIA.

QUEEN VICTORIA PROCLAIMED "EMPRESS OF INDIA"

On January 1st, 1877, at a great *durbar* held in Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed "Empress of India" with befitting pomp and ceremony. Lord Lytton was the Governor-General at that time, and in issuing the proclamation before the magnificent assemblage of native Princes he hoped that this new title might be the means of drawing closer the bonds of union between the government of Her Majesty and the great allies and feudatories of the Empire. It was an impressive scene. A hundred thousand persons, chiefly natives, were gathered in the vast plain outside the city, besides about fifteen thousand troops of the Indian army. With the sun shining upon this great assemblage clothed in every variety of brilliantly-coloured costume, it looked like an immense Eastern garden in full bloom. The memorable ceremonial concluded with the release of numerous prisoners and debtors, and by the lavish distribution to the poor of rupees bearing the words "Victoria, Empress".

The British Empire
At Home and Abroad

An Account of its Origin, Progress, and Present Position
With full Descriptions of
Canada, Australasia, South Africa, India, and
Other Colonies and Dependencies

BY

EDGAR SANDERSON
M.A. (CANTAB.)
AUTHOR OF "HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE" "OUTLINES OF THE WORLD'S HISTORY", ETC.

WITH MANY ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

NEW EDITION

Greatly Enlarged and brought down to the Beginning of the Twentieth Century

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OUR EMPIRE AT HOME AND ABROAD.

BOOK V.—*Continued.*

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA, IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER VI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA (*continued*). INDIA: HISTORY FROM 1858 TO THE PRESENT DAY.

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The sepoy rebellion brought with it the political extinction of the East India Company. The whole Indian administration was transferred to the Crown by the abolition of the "double government" vested in the Board of Control and the Court of Directors. On September 1st, 1858, the political functions of the Directors ceased, but the Company still existed for the management of their "East India Stock", all other property being vested in the Crown for the purposes of the government of India. An Act of 1873 redeemed the dividends on the capital-stock, and on June 1st, 1874,

after its long, chequered, and, on the whole, glorious history, the East India Company was finally dissolved. The great statutes of 1858 and 1861, which reformed the Home (or British) and the Local Indian Government made the changes now to be described. The President of the Board of Control became, with greatly enlarged powers, a "Secretary of State for India", assisted by a Council of fifteen members. The Indian, or Company's, navy ceased to exist, and the European troops of the Company, numbering about 24,000 officers and men, passed into the Queen's service. The "Governor-General" became a "Viceroy", with supreme power in India, assisted by an executive and a legislative council. The Viceroy's Executive Council, generally composed of five official members besides the Viceroy and the Commander-in-chief in India, meets at brief regular intervals, dividing among themselves the chief departments of public business, foreign affairs, finance, war, public works, &c. The Viceroy has at once the duties of a prime-minister and a constitutional sovereign, with special charge of the foreign department. The Legislative Council includes the members of the Executive, with the addition of the Governor of the Province, officials chosen by the Viceroy from other Provinces, and nominated members representing the non-official native and European communities. The meetings of the Legislative Council, usually held once a week, are open to the public, and draft-Bills, after being amended by the several Provincial governments concerned, are published a certain number of times in the official Gazette. The Presidencies of Bombay and Madras, Bengal (as a Lieutenant-Governorship), and the North-Western Provinces with Oudh, have also Provincial Legislative Councils, with members appointed by the Governors or Lieutenant-Governors, such nominations, like the legislation passed, being subject to the approval of the Viceroy. The "High Courts" of Justice exist in the Lieutenant-Governorships of Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces, and in the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, with supreme jurisdiction both in civil and criminal affairs, subject only to an appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London. The puisne or assistant judges in these Courts are chosen in certain proportions from the Indian Civil Service and from the English or the local Bars, and include natives who have shown themselves to be highly competent for such work.

In the Punjab and in Oudh, there are "Chief Courts"; in the Central Provinces, and in Upper and Lower Burma, "Judicial Commissioners" have power. In Assam, there is a "Chief Commissioner" as judge, with appeal from him to the High Court at Calcutta.

The law administered in the Indian Courts consists chiefly of (1) enactments of Indian Legislative Councils, present and prior to 1858; (2) Acts of Parliament applying to India; (3) Hindu and Mohammedan laws of inheritance, and domestic law, in causes affecting Mohammedans and Hindus; (4) customary law affecting particular races and castes. The later period of British sway in India has been nobly distinguished by progress in the simplification and the lucid statement of law. No agency for good has been more powerful in British India than the administration of justice according to British ideas of veracity and equitable dealing. The morality of vast populations has thus been visibly improved. To this great advantage has now been added, through modern Codes, rare excellence in the form, comprehensiveness, and clearness of the law. These codes, of which the Penal Code has been already described, are wholly the product, except the Penal Code, of the time during which India has been governed by the Crown. The Codes of Criminal and Civil Procedure, and the Code of Substantive Civil Law, have almost completed the good work of enabling any man of fair intelligence who can read, to learn on any point in practical life the law by which his conduct should be guided and controlled.

A memorable event came to pass on November 1st, 1858, when "all the people, nations, and languages" of India received their Magna Charta from Queen Victoria. At a solemn *darbar* (Durbar, or state-reception) held at Allahabad, Lord Canning, the first Viceroy, published the Royal Proclamation, announcing that the Queen had assumed the government of the British territories. This grand document breathed a noble spirit of generosity, benevolence, and religious toleration. All existing dignities, rights, usages, and treaties were confirmed. The natives were assured that the British government had neither the right nor the desire to tamper with their religion or caste. An amnesty was accorded to all mutineers and rebels, save only those who should be proved to have taken a direct share in the murder of British subjects.

Translated into all the languages of the country, this proclamation was warmly and gratefully recognized by the general intelligence of the people. On July 8th, 1859, peace was proclaimed throughout India, and in the following cold season Canning made a viceregal progress through the northern provinces. At a grand darbar held at Agra in November, where his dignified presence created a profound and ineffaceable impression, he received the homage of many loyal princes and chiefs, to whom, in his sovereign's name, he guaranteed the right of adopting a son who should succeed, on the failure of natural heirs, to the government of their several principalities. The question so hotly disputed in regard to the action, in several instances, of Lord Dalhousie, was thus finally settled.

The financial position had been greatly changed through the increase of the public debt of India by 40 millions sterling in the cost of suppressing the revolt, and the annual expenditure was augmented by about 10 millions in the charge due to military changes, whereby a far greater European force was maintained. Mr. James Wilson, a distinguished political economist and parliamentary financier, was sent out from England as Financial Member of Council, in which capacity, at the cost of his life amidst his arduous toils, he rendered eminent service. A State paper-currency was established, the customs-duties were settled on a new basis, and a licence-duty and an income-tax were imposed. It is impossible here to go far into the lengthy and complicated subject of Indian revenue. The most important sources are land, opium, salt, stamps, and excise. The present value of a rupee is about 1*s.*, ten rupees thus making about 10*s.*, or one-half of a pound. The following figures mean tens of rupees, and in the financial year 1894–95 land-revenue produced over 25 millions, opium-duty over 8 millions, the salt-duty above 8½ millions, stamps nearly 4½ millions, and excise over 5 millions. The civil salaries paid reached nearly 14½ millions, the army cost above 25 millions. The whole expenditure (which includes the railway-account of nearly 21 millions against 19 millions received) reached over 94 millions against 95 millions of total revenue. The total debt, still in tens of rupees, amounts to over 230 millions. The land-tax is based upon the very ancient Eastern system of the State appropriating a share of the produce of the soil. Under

British rule, with its justice and stability, individual proprietary right in land has arisen, along with occupancy-right or fixity of tenure for the peasant-cultivators, and legal titles have been substituted for unwritten customs. The Government-share of the produce of the soil, paid in coin to the revenue-officers, a little exceeds 5 per cent, taking the average land-tax throughout India. Under native rule, the amount seized by the government varied from 33 to 60 per cent.

Like his illustrious predecessor Dalhousie, Lord Canning sacrificed his life in the faithful discharge of his arduous duties. Quitting India in March, 1862, he died on June 17th, before he had been a month in England, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. His title of earl, conferred in 1859, became extinct from lack of any surviving son. The second Viceroy of India was James Bruce, eighth Earl of Elgin in the peerage of Scotland, first Baron Elgin (1849) in the peerage of the United Kingdom, son of the Earl of Elgin who brought from Athens the famous sculptures in the British Museum known as the "Elgin Marbles". The new ruler, as we shall see hereafter, had displayed signal ability as Governor of Jamaica and Governor-General of Canada. His decision of character was finely shown when, in 1857, on his way to China as minister-plenipotentiary at the time of the Second Chinese War, he heard at Singapore of the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny, and promptly diverted to Lord Canning's aid the troops destined for China. His diplomatic services in China and Japan in 1858 and 1860 have been already noticed. During his brief term of office in India, trouble arose on the north-west frontier and in Bhutan, an independent state of the eastern Himalayas. In the north-west, the wild mountain-tribes of the Sulaiman range, running southwards from the Hindu Kush into Sind, renewed their raids on British territory in the Punjab. These ignorant, barbarous, bloodthirsty, and treacherous Mohammedan fanatics, with internecine blood-feuds amongst themselves, but ever ready to unite against foreigners, were the people against whom Lord Dalhousie established the Punjab Irregular Force. The special aggressors on this occasion were a sect of Mohammedan puritans, called Wahabis, who had migrated from Bengal about 1830, and settled some forty miles to the north of Attock, in the Sitana district. It was known that from time to time they received supplies of men and money

from disaffected Mohammedans at Patna, 1200 miles away, and it was thought well to give them a sharp chastisement. A force of 5000 men under General Sir Neville Chamberlain was sent to attack them by way of the Umbeyla Pass, lying on Afghan territory. The coming of the assailants was known, and the Wahabis obtained the aid of all the neighbouring tribes by the artful falsehood that the British infidels were coming to lay waste their country and subvert their religion. In the Umbeyla Pass, nine miles long, Chamberlain and his troops found themselves entrapped and surrounded by many thousands of men. It was impossible to advance without reinforcements, and almost hopeless to attempt to retire in face of swarming foes in front and on both flanks, while the rear was blocked by the mules, camels, and baggage of the invaders themselves. General Chamberlain was wounded, and at that moment the Viceroy, Lord Elgin, lay in a dying condition at the hill-station of Dharmsala in the Punjab. There he expired in November, 1863, and was buried in the churchyard. At this crisis, Sir Hugh Rose, the Commander-in-Chief, sent up reinforcements in hot haste from Lahore, and General Garvock, the successor of Chamberlain, with a force of 9000 men, routed all the opposing tribes in a brilliant little campaign.

After a brief tenure of power, as acting-Viceroy, by Sir William Denison, Governor of Madras, Sir John Lawrence was appointed third Viceroy. Born at Richmond, in Yorkshire, in 1811, son of Lieut.-Colonel Lawrence, who served at the storming of Seringapatam, he entered the civil service of the Company after a distinguished career at Haileybury. The early years of his official life were passed in magisterial and revenue duties in the North-West Provinces, where he acquired the experience and the knowledge of native character and needs which enabled him to obtain, as we have seen, such high distinction as ruler of the Punjab. His firm and beneficent sway won the respect and good-will of the conquered Sikhs. His prudent, prompt, and daring action on the outbreak of the Mutiny justly gained for him the glorious title of "Saviour of India". His despatch of reinforcements made him the real conqueror of Delhi. On his return to England, he received fitting rewards in the thanks of Parliament, a pension of £2000 a-year, a baronetcy, a seat in the Privy Council, and a knighthood in the new "Most Exalted Order of the Star of India", whose motto is

"Heaven's Light our Guide". His services had already won for him the Grand Cross of the Bath, and, on the death of Lord Elgin, his appointment to the vacant post received universal public approval. His five-years' tenure of office showed his accustomed wisdom and energy, and, in view of events to be hereafter dealt with, we may note that, in foreign policy, he was always opposed to British interference in Asia beyond the frontier at Peshawar, and, regardless of panic-mongers on the subject of Russia, he would have no intriguing in Afghan affairs.

The first duty of the new Viceroy was that of dealing with the Bhutanese, a barbarous people of Buddhist religion and utterly degraded character, living among the lofty mountains bounded on the north by Thibet, and on the south by Assam and Bengal. They had long given just offence to the Indian government by depredations committed on British subjects in the lowland district called the Dwars or passes, to the south. Many people were slain by these raiders, and many more were carried off as slaves. Sir William Denison, the acting-Viceroy at the close of 1863, sent the Hon. Ashley Eden on a mission to demand reparation. He was not only received with insult and defiance, but was forced to sign a treaty giving over to Bhutan the territory on which the outrages had been committed, and which they claimed as their own. Sir John Lawrence, who had arrived in India in January, 1864, at once repudiated this discreditable arrangement, and demanded the immediate restoration of all British subjects kidnapped during the past five years. On refusal, he proclaimed, in November, 1864, the annexation of the eleven western or Bengal Dwars. In January, 1865, after a seeming submission, the Bhutanese suddenly attacked our garrison at Diwangiri, in Assam, and the troops were forced to retire with the loss of two mountain-guns. Reinforcements under General Tombs soon put matters right, and the enemy were compelled to sue for peace, concluded in November, 1865. All the eighteen Dwars of Bengal and Assam were ceded to our rule; the captives were restored; and the Indian government, with the clemency of strength, agreed to pay an annual allowance, conditional on good behaviour, in lieu of the revenue, in the shape of rents, lost by the Bhutan rulers through our annexation of territory. Permanent peace and prosperity for the new and old British districts followed this settlement.

A very different foe was face to face with the Viceroy in 1866. This was the dreadful famine in Orissa, a province subject to drought as well as to inundation, both arising from want of due control over the water-supply. Abundance of rain (62 inches per annum) is the rule of the fertile deltaic land, but no storage was made against the day of need. When a rupee will buy but 21 lbs. of rice, it is held that a famine needing operations of relief is come. In April, 1866, rice was at 11 lbs. per rupee, and the poorer classes were in imminent danger of starvation. Prices continued to rise, and in July, in lack of rice, the people were resorting to the grasses in the fields for food. Relief-committees were started, and rice sent by the government from Bengal was distributed to the helpless and to those who were capable of labour on relief-works. Every effort was made to meet the terrible evil, and many thousands of pounds were expended. One government agent stated that, "for miles round you heard the yell of the famishing crowds for food". In August, heavy rains caused serious disease from cold and wet, and then all the low-lying country was flooded. In November, the crop of new rice began to come into the markets, and the dreadful famine abated, after having slain, with its concurrent disease, about one-fourth of a population of nearly 3 millions. In 1868–69 there were serious famines in Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan, and these caused Sir John Lawrence, for the first time in Indian history, to establish the principle of making government officials personally responsible for using all possible efforts to prevent death by starvation.

The affairs of Afghanistan were forced upon the attention of the Indian Viceroy by the death of Dost Mahommed Khan in June, 1863, and by the advance of Russian power in Central Asia. That great European and Asiatic monarchy had pushed her troops beyond the Jaxartes and was approaching the Oxus. At the same time, the decease of the powerful Afghan ruler, who had remained firm to the British alliance since 1855, brought war between his sons for the succession to the throne. In the end, his younger son, Sher Ali, already recognized as Amir by Sir John Lawrence, obtained full possession of the country, and was propitiated by a gift of money and arms from the Indian government. In January, 1869, Sir John Lawrence resigned office, after filling every post of the Indian Civil Service from an assistant-magistracy upwards.

He returned to England, received a peerage as the well-earned reward of capacity and energy rarely equalled in modern days, and, after ten years' more good work, partly as chairman of the London School Board in its earliest days, he was buried in July, 1879, within the walls of Westminster Abbey.

The successor of Lord Lawrence was the Earl of Mayo, a statesman who, as Lord Naas, had been thrice Chief-Secretary of Ireland under Lord Derby as Premier. Head of the Bourkes of County Kildare, born in Dublin in 1822, he became a well-liked member of the House of Commons, and showed much capacity for public business in his Irish office, but his selection by Mr. Disraeli, in his first ministry, for the Viceregal office in India completely took the British world by surprise. Lord Mayo was destined to nobly fulfil the requirements of his great promotion and to prove, in his own case, his chief's keen insight as a judge of mankind. He rose in a short time to the height of his new position, and, under the ministry of his political opponent, Mr. Gladstone, worked in harmony with the new Secretary for India, the Duke of Argyll. The dignified, courtly, and charming demeanour of an Irish gentleman of the highest type won for him a social popularity in India which had not been attained by any recent ruler at Calcutta. As an administrator Lord Mayo showed admirable zeal and ability. He largely developed the railway and telegraph systems planned and commenced by Dalhousie. Education, commercial and mining enterprise, were greatly promoted. To him were due the creation of an Agricultural Department, and the introduction of a system of Provincial Finance which, in connection with local self-government, has been of great value in augmenting and thriftily employing the revenues of the country. Roads and canals, as well as railways, were vastly extended, and the Viceroy never tired of travelling through the land to see things with his own eyes, to study the people and their needs, and to win the friendship of native rulers and of men of every class by the uniform justice, kindness, and courtesy of his conduct and manners. In March, 1869, soon after his arrival in India, the new Viceroy received Sher Ali of Afghanistan in a grand *darbar* (Durbar) at Ambala (Umballa), north-west of Delhi, and by his conciliatory tone, and renewal of assurance that the British government regarded him as the rightful ruler of his country, he soothed the susceptibilities of a monarch who, as a

good judge expresses it, "had been chilled by the icy friendship of Sir John Lawrence". The importance of "manner" was never more signally shown in dealings with Oriental princes than when Lord Mayo, at the Umballa interview, won the heart of Sher Ali Khan.

The tragical end of Lord Mayo's most useful, honourable, and successful career as Viceroy, during three years' tenure of office, was a terrible shock to the public mind, and a real calamity to the Empire. After a brief visit to Lower Burma, the Viceroy and Lady Mayo, with the personal staff, steamed away to the Andaman Islands for inspection of the penal settlement. The steam frigate *Glasgow* lay off Port Blair, on the evening of February 8th, 1872, with Lady Mayo and her friends on board, awaiting the return of the Viceroy. Quickly fell the tropical dark, and, as the Viceroy, with torches borne aloft, descended Mount Harriet towards the landing-place where the state-launch lay with steam up, the long lines of lights on the *Glasgow* and the escorting squadron, the *Dacca*, *Nemesis*, and *Scotia*, glittered on the water. At the moment of Lord Mayo's stepping into the boat, a rush was made, a knife-armed hand rose and fell, and the Viceroy, stabbed twice in the back, fell over the pier into the water alongside. He staggered up, knee-deep in the water, cleared the hair from his brow in bewilderment, and cried to his secretary, Major Burne, who leapt down to his aid, "They've hit me!" and then to the people on the pier he said, "It is all right, I don't think I am much hurt." In two minutes he was dead, and so he was carried to the ship in the launch, which came alongside as the voices of the ladies were heard in merriment, waiting for dinner in the state-cabin. The scene which followed passes all description. The assassin was an Afghan convict, by a strange coincidence named Sher Ali, formerly in the Punjab mounted police, condemned to death for a murder at Peshawar, and then sent to the Andamans on a life-sentence of exile. He had dogged the steps of his victim all day, and up and down Mount Harriet, and got his chance when Lord Mayo, about to embark, stepped forward from among the suite who had closely surrounded his person. The murderer's motive was simply one of vengeance on the high official whose duty had caused him to sanction the punishment of crime. The Viceroy's body was brought back to Ireland and laid in a shady spot of the quiet little churchyard at

Palmerstown, near the family-seat on his Kildare estate. The place of burial had been chosen by himself when, in October 1868, he had made a farewell visit, and then left his home, as his diary relates, "amid tears and wailing, much leave-taking, and great sorrow".

Before passing away from Lord Mayo's administration, we may note the very important link of connection between Great Britain and her Indian Empire supplied in November, 1869, by the opening of the Suez Canal. The only warlike event was an expedition made in 1871 against the turbulent people in the Lushai Hills, a wild tract of country on the borders of Assam, Bengal, and Burma. The Lushais, feudally organized under hereditary chiefs, had committed, since the days of Warren Hastings, sanguinary raids on British territory, and in 1860, their invasion of the Bengal district of Tipperah ended in the massacre of nearly 200 villagers and the carrying off of 100 captives. After several futile expeditions made by small bodies of our forces in the very difficult country of the Lushais, that people, in January, 1871, attacked some British villages, killed a planter at the tea-garden of Alexandrapur, and carried off his daughter, Mary Winchester, as a hostage. Lord Mayo resolved on administering a lesson, and a strong expedition was prepared by the Commander-in-chief, Lord Napier of Magdala. In November, 1871, a little army of 2000 men, composed of Gurkha, Punjab, and Bengal infantry, with engineers and mountain-guns, entered the hills in two columns under Generals Bourchier and Brownlow, and, amidst great difficulties of ground in unexplored country and against strong resistance from a hardy enemy, they inflicted severe losses in the burning of villages, the slaying of hillsmen, and the destruction of stores of food. Many powerful chiefs were thus forced to submission, and above 100 British subjects were freed from captivity. Among these, little Mary Winchester, then nearly seven years old, was delivered up in January, 1872. She was a native of Elgin, and already long motherless when her father, in March, 1871, was shot by the Lushais as he ran off carrying her on his back. The pretty, affectionate, and intelligent child was sent back at the charge of the Indian government to her grandparents in Elgin. She would say nothing about the events of her nine months' captivity, but had a sad look whenever the Lushais were mentioned. The wild people seem to have

had a fondness for their little prisoner, whose curls were cut off by them before her restoration, as a memorial of her stay among them. The expedition was completely successful in its main object of causing the Lushais to abstain from aggressions in time to come.

On the assassination of Lord Mayo, the duties of government were assumed for a time by the skilled diplomatist, descendant of a famous and ancient Scottish family, Lord Napier of Merchistoun, then holding the post of Governor of Madras. The new Viceroy appointed by the Queen, on Mr. Gladstone's advice as Premier, was the experienced Whig official Thomas George Baring, second Lord Northbrook, who had served the country as a Lord of the Admiralty, as Under-Secretary for India, and in the same capacity at the War Office, a post which he had been holding since the end of 1868. He proved to be a hard-working ruler, able in administration, not given to viceregal pageants or tours, and specially devoted to financial measures. He promptly repealed the income-tax which, after abolition in 1844, had been reimposed in the English form that, from its complications, became obnoxious to the natives of India. In 1873, the failure of summer and autumn rains portended a famine, from lack of rice and other grains, in Lower Bengal and Behar. Mindful of the recent calamity in Orissa, the Viceroy and Sir George Campbell, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, took prompt measures to meet the threatened evil, and the Duke of Argyll, Secretary of State for India, gave them authority to incur any needful expenses. Vast quantities of rice and other native food were purchased, relief-works were established on a great scale, and in May, 1874, nearly three millions of persons were being supported by the government in the famine districts. The work of distribution was arranged and carried out with great ability and energy by Campbell and his successor Sir Richard Temple. Native landholders gave considerable help, and the civil servants of every rank were most zealous in fighting the terrible foe. So successful were the efforts made in this "glorious famine-campaign" of Lord Northbrook's that scarcely any more deaths from starvation occurred in the stricken districts than the number known in an ordinary season. In 1875, the Gaekwar of Baroda, a cruel tyrant who, after one stern warning from the Indian government concerning his barbarous misrule, still made sport of seeing his prisoners trampled to death by elephants, was dethroned and banished from

his country. This decision was reached by the Viceroy on the conclusion of that potentate's trial for attempts to poison Colonel Phayre, the British Resident. The evidence against him was not conclusive, and, after an able defence by the famous English barrister, Sergeant Ballantine, imported for the purpose at enormous cost, the special Court of Inquiry was divided in opinion. Lord Northbrook, however, carefully perused the evidence, and, coupling strong suspicion of guilt in this case with the notorious misgovernment of the Gaekwar, he placed on the throne of Baroda a young member of the ruling house.

The visit and tour of the Prince of Wales took place in the cold season of 1875–76, and the heir to the British throne found a warm and loyal welcome from the native princes who now fully realized the fact that, in their relations to the Indian government, they and their peoples were bound up with the Oriental interests and power of an European nation governed by an ancient and splendid dynasty. The pen of Dr. W. H. Russell, the famous *Times* correspondent, who accompanied the Prince as secretary, has fully detailed the incidents of a course of travel during which the royal tourist saw, to the greatest advantage, much of the best that India has to show. In the crowd of mental photographs then acquired by the Prince were the picturesque and gorgeous dress and ceremonial of Oriental state, with the quaint, strange customs of local and native etiquette; the rock-hewn temples and the graceful or stately shrines and tombs and palaces of olden Hindu or Mohammedan work; combats between pairs of elephants, tigers, buffaloes, rhinoceroses, camels, and rams; the chasing of wild black deer by cheetahs or hunting leopards; the golden, jewelled treasures guarded by the priests of pagan gods; the shooting of elephants from a platform in the jungle, and of tigers from the howdah on the elephant's back; and the dances of girls in silken attire of divers hues, with wreaths of pearls round head and neck, rings of pearls passing through the nose, and jewelled bangles on ankle and wrist. The scenes of strife and death in the days of the great Mutiny were inspected at Cawnpore, Lucknow, and Delhi, and at Lahore the chiefs of the Punjab, men of martial faces and noble forms, with elephants and steeds in gold and silver trappings, and with bands of followers in splendid array of weapon, banner, and plume, made obeisance to the son of the great Queen beyond the seas amidst the blare of

trumpets, the roll of drums, and the clang of instruments strange to European eye and ear.

The usual term of office for an Indian Viceroy is five years, but early in 1876, after four years of service, Lord Northbrook, feeling the burden of his position and the effect of climate upon his health, resigned his high post, and was succeeded by Lord Lytton. The new Viceroy, known in literature as "Owen Meredith", was the son of Edward Bulwer, the first Lord Lytton, novelist, playwright, essayist, poet, and politician. Born in 1831, this ruler of British India had long served his country in diplomacy, and had been minister at the court of Lisbon. In April, 1876, he was sworn in at Calcutta, and then departed for residence at Simla. On November 1st, a great calamity befell the people of Backergunge (Bakarganj), a populous district, nearly half the size of Wales, on the coast of Bengal. The greatest cyclone, or circular hurricane, on record in that region suddenly brought on the eastern Sunderbunds a storm-wave so powerful and vast that three great and many smaller islands, with the coast for five miles inland, were instantly submerged, to the destruction of over 200,000 human beings. It was really just before midnight on October 31st, when the natives at rest in their little huts under the bamboos, amidst dense groves of cocoa-nut and palm planted round the villages, were awakened by the fearful scream of the tempest-wind sweeping in from the south-west. The land was about 20 feet above mid-tide, but the whirling wall of water rose far above the surface, and swept all buildings and people away. From the first dreadful sound till the recoil of the wave after its work of ruin barely thirty minutes passed. A few persons were saved by climbing trees which kept their hold in the ground. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, Sir Richard Temple, was soon on the spot, with an active band of officials, and all possible help and relief were afforded to those survivors who had suffered the loss of cattle and crops.

On January 1st, 1877, at a magnificent *darbar* held at Delhi, the Queen was proclaimed by Lord Lytton as "Empress of India". There was a great attendance of native princes at the old Mogul capital, the Nizam of Haidarabad, the Maharajas of Cashmere and Mysore, and the young Gaekwar of Baroda being conspicuous for the splendour of the display of costumes in their own persons and their retinue. To each ruler was presented a banner bearing his

or her family insignia, embroidered in gold or silver on silk or satin, with a medal commemorative of the event. The Maharajas of Gwalior and Cashmere were appointed honorary generals of the British army, and, in Lord Lytton's words, it was hoped that the occasion would "be the means of drawing still closer the bonds of union between the government of Her Majesty and the great allies and feudatories of the Empire". No assemblage of princes so numerous and in such gorgeous array had ever occurred in India, and the scene was one of marvellous grandeur and gaiety when every variety of Eastern costume and colour was shown by a hundred thousand persons gathered in the old cantonment behind the historic "ridge" whence the siege had been conducted by the British troops in 1857. The vast plain resembled a garden covered with beds of brilliant flowers, and a bright sun gave full effect to every detail of hue and form. Fifteen thousand troops of the Indian army were ranged on the ground, in the perfection of modern equipment and discipline, while the retainers of the native princes showed all varieties of olden armament in scimitar and shield, matchlock and halbert, and artillery on the backs of camels equipped with red cloth and tinkling bells. Many new titles and distinctions, matters fully as dear to the Oriental mind as to the European, were accorded to native rulers, nobles, and civilians of distinguished merit, and the whole ceremonial observance concluded with a large release of prisoners and debtors, and with a lavish distribution to the poor of rupees bearing the new legend "Victoria, Empress".

The attention of the Viceroy was now called to far different affairs. The whole of southern India, from the Deccan to Cape Comorin, was threatened with famine. The rain had failed to come fully in both the monsoons of 1876, and early in November a territory nearly as large as England was devoid of crops. Large quantities of rice were sent from Orissa, but much trouble was caused in landing supplies at the mouths of the rivers Godavery and Kistnah, the deposit of which prevents vessels of any fair tonnage coming within six miles of the shore, and all cargoes needed to be taken off in open boats. Riots in the towns, and dacoity (robbery) in the country districts, were rife, and the most vigorous measures were required both for the repression of crime and for the relief of want. The season of 1877 was also very deficient in

rain, and the area of famine spread through the Bombay and Madras presidencies, and then to the north, until it reached nearly 260,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 60 millions directly affected. In spite of all efforts made under the direction of Sir Richard Temple, and an expenditure of 11 millions sterling for relief, this awful visitation caused a loss of life, from actual starvation and subsequent disease, that exceeded five millions. A "Famine Commission" of eminent Europeans and natives was appointed to visit the territory which had thus suffered, and inquire into the means of preventing such calamities in future.

In 1878, while the Russo-Turkish war was being waged in Europe and in Asia Minor, a restless feeling was aroused amongst the Mohammedans of India, and seditious and libellous articles began to appear in some of the newspapers printed in Oriental languages. Lord Lytton then caused the passing of the "Vernacular Press Act", as it was commonly called, to repress these utterances against native officials and the Indian government in general. The "Russian scare" at this time again arose in connection with the affairs of Afghanistan. After the Russian occupation of Khiva in 1873, Sher Ali, the Afghan Amir, became uneasy, and sent a special envoy to Lord Northbrook, requesting a close alliance and the aid of arms and money for defence. The Indian Viceroy promised aid under certain conditions, but expressed the opinion that at present there was no need for fear of Russia. The attitude of Sher Ali towards our government in India was changed, and early in 1877 he declined a proposal for a British mission to Cabul. In the autumn of 1878, an embassy from the Czar of Russia was received by him with every mark of honour and distinction, and Lord Beaconsfield resolved to force Sher Ali to admit a special envoy. Persistent refusal caused a declaration of war, and three columns of our troops invaded Afghanistan by the Khyber, Kuram, and Bolan passes. The enemy were defeated in battle after battle, and the Amir fled to Turkestan, where he died early in the following year. His son, Yakub Khan, after the occupation of Kandahar by General Stewart, and some vigorous proceedings of General Roberts, concluded the Treaty of Gundamuk in May, 1879, agreeing to receive a resident British minister at Cabul, and to follow British advice in foreign affairs. In return for these concessions, the Indian government undertook to pay an annual sub-

sidy of £60,000, and to defend Afghanistan against attack from abroad. Sir Louis Napoleon Cavagnari, an officer of high merit, son of an Italian who had been a devoted friend of the second Emperor of the French, became our minister at Cabul, with Mr. Jenkyns of the Bengal Civil Service as secretary, Dr. Kelly as the Residency-surgeon, and an escort of about 80 men, chiefly Sepoys, under the command of Lieutenant Hamilton. Within a month of their arrival, all were massacred, after a desperate resistance, in a rising of the bigoted and mutinous Afghan soldiery.

The tragical event of September 3rd, 1879, was known two days later at Simla, and the Viceroy at once sent forward the troops at the Khyber Pass and Peshawar under the command of General Sir Frederick Roberts. The Afghans were routed in the battle of Charasiab, opening the road to Cabul, which was entered on October 12th. Martial law was proclaimed; persons guilty in the massacre were executed; the Amir, Yakub Khan, abdicated, and was sent a prisoner to India. A rebellion arose outside the capital through the preaching of a Jehad, or religious war, at Ghazni (Ghuznee), and large Afghan forces were again in the field. In March, 1880, the enemy were utterly defeated at Ghazni by General Stewart, and then another foe appeared on the scene. This was the able and energetic Ayub Khan, a son of Sher Ali, who claimed the throne from a grandson of Dost Mahommed, Abdur Rahman Khan, who had been admitted as Amir by the British government. Ayub Khan advanced with an army from Herat, and on July 27th almost destroyed a British force of 2500 men, Europeans and Sepoys, under General Burrows. The famous battle of Maiwand was fought near a village and pass of that name about fifty miles north-west of Kandahar, whence General Primrose, ignorant of the enemy's strength, had sent forth the detachment. Ayub Khan had 12,000 men, with 36 guns well equipped and well served. The fire of the twelve British cannon was overwhelmed, and a charge of thousands of the fanatical Ghazis, keen sabre in hand, captured two guns, and drove the Sepoys in disorder on the only British troops present, 406 men and 19 officers of the 66th or "Old Berkshire" regiment. Of these, 10 officers and 275 men were killed. One noble incident of the desperate struggle was the resistance made by 100 officers and men of the 66th, surrounded in a garden by countless foes. Hundreds of the

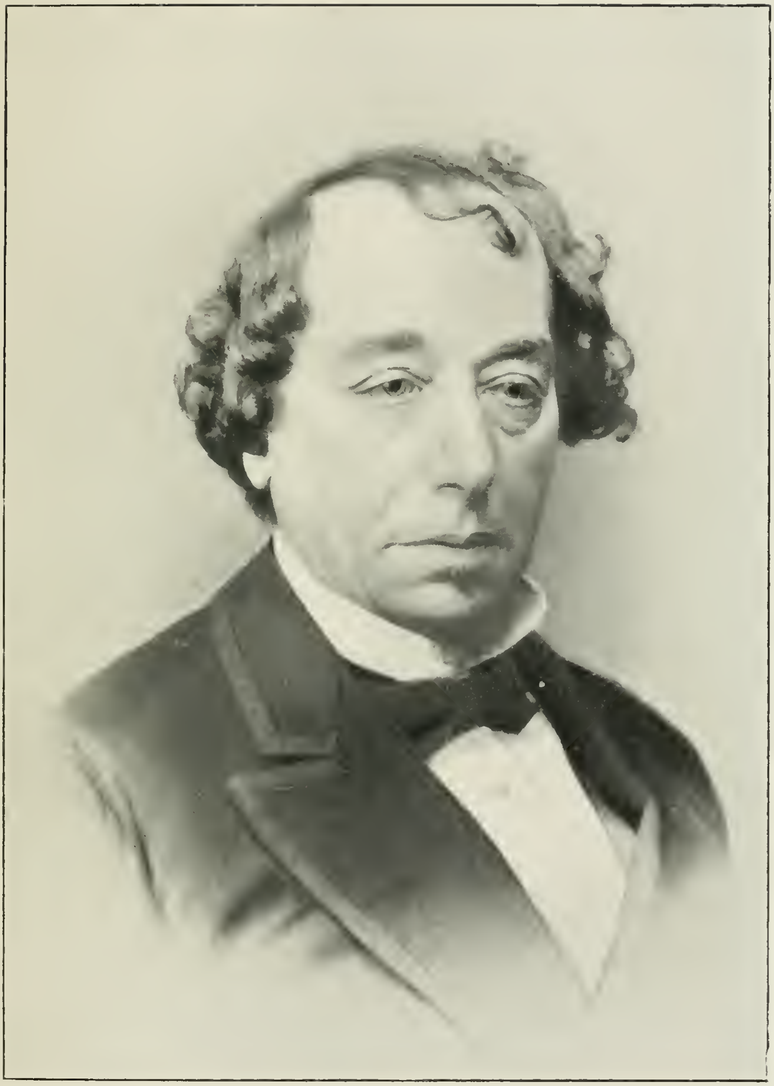
enemy were shot down by the breech-loaders, but at last only eleven British heroes were left standing, and these men charged out of the inclosure and died, back to back, facing the Ghazis whom their resolute demeanour daunted and deterred from a close approach. One by one the British succumbed to bullets, while, in the hasty retreat to Kandahar, the surviving Sepoys fell by hundreds under the knives and shot of the Afghan villagers and hillmen.

Then came the brilliant historical march of Roberts. At this critical juncture, while swarms of exulting enemies hemmed in Primrose and his small force, and people at home were filled with anger and dismay, a bold stroke was being devised at Cabul. On August 8th, General Roberts went forth with about 10,000 men, including 2500 Europeans and about 270 British officers, with 18 mountain-guns. The smallest possible quantity of baggage was taken, but the desertion of the native drivers soon caused additional fatigue for the troops. Nothing, however, could cool the zeal of the marchers, among whom were brave and faithful Sikhs, and many of the loyal, lithe, and active Ghurkhas. The weather, happily, was fine, and food was found in the green Indian corn growing in patches among the hills. The British general, in this advance, plunged into darkness and silence for over three weeks. Not a word of news reached India or Great Britain as he made his way through the pathless regions between Cabul and Kandahar. On August 16th, Ghazni, 98 miles on the road, was reached; on the 23rd, the army was at Kilat Ghilzi, 134 miles from Ghazni. A day or two of rest were given here on receipt of news from Kandahar that Ayub Khan's beleaguering army had retired from before the city. On August 31st Roberts and his men joined General Primrose, after traversing 318 miles in 23 days. On September 1st Ayub Khan was attacked in his position north-west of the town and completely defeated with the loss of all his artillery and the re-capture of the two guns taken from General Burrows at Maiwand. Before these events, a change of rulers had come to pass in India, but we may here note that the British troops were withdrawn from Afghanistan, and that, after more warfare between the two rivals, Abdur Rahman became undisputed Amir, friendly to British interests, and further secured, in 1883, by our undertaking to pay a yearly subsidy of £120,000.

In April, 1880, Lord Lytton resigned his office along with the

THE EARL OF BEACONSFIELD, K.G.

Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, one of the most extraordinary political characters in British history, was born in London in 1805, son of Isaac Disraeli, a retired merchant and literary man, descended from a family of Venetian Jews. Baptised in youth into the English Church, and educated in private, the young Disraeli, after travel in Italy, Greece, and Palestine, entered the House of Commons in 1837, and won his first fame by attacks on Sir Robert Peel when he introduced his Free-Trade measures. In the course of twenty years the consummately clever man, full of energy and resource, became leader of the Conservatives in the Commons, and was Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Derby's ministries of 1852 and 1859. In 1868, on his chief's retirement, Disraeli became Premier for a few months. In 1874, on Mr. Gladstone's defeat at the polls, he attained power again, now with a good majority at his back, and held office until 1880, when he retired after defeat at the General Election of that year. In 1876 he had been created Earl. His chief political measures were the Second Reform Act (1867) and his purchase of the Suez Canal shares in 1875. He died in 1881, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.



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BENJAMIN D'ISRAELI, EARL OF BEACONSFIELD

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ministry of Lord Beaconsfield, and was succeeded by the Marquess of Ripon. The new Viceroy was son of the first Earl of Ripon who, as Viscount Goderich, was prime-minister from August 1827 to January 1828. Born in 1827, and succeeding to his father's title in 1859, Lord Ripon served in various Liberal administrations as Under-Secretary and Secretary both for War and for India, and was created Marquess in 1871 for his services at Washington as Commissioner concerning the *Alabama* claims and other matters in dispute between the United States and Great Britain. The four years of his Indian administration form a peaceful period, apart from the Afghan warfare just described, of very important and beneficial reforms in the internal government of the vast territories committed to his charge. We may note, by the way, that in 1881 the government of the Native State of Mysore, which had been for fifty years in British hands, was transferred to the Maharaja who belonged, by adoption, to the hereditary native dynasty. In 1882 the policy of the previous Viceroy was reversed in the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, setting the native journals free from the last restraints on the free discussion of public questions. The development of local self-government through municipal institutions was a main feature of Lord Ripon's reforming work. He proclaimed that "self-help varied in aim, local in colouring" was to be the basis of his system of government. Members of the Financial and Public Works Boards visited the various provinces and conferred with the local authorities on the measures to be adopted for the promotion of native enterprise in the use of local resources on the creation of beneficial public works. A number of enactments increased the powers of the local authorities in the towns and the country-districts, and the number of members chosen by popular election was augmented. Many new local boards were created among the rural population, and every effort was made to foster in the native mind the principle of local administration on a representative basis. The liberality of the Viceroy's policy towards the natives aroused in one instance the keen resentment of the resident Anglo-Indians. The " Ilbert Bill " was the popular name, from its introduction by Mr. Ilbert, of the famous Bill for amending Criminal Procedure in the rural courts presided over by native officials of the Civil Service who had reached the position of District Magistrates and Sessions Judges. The new measure proposed

to subject Europeans to the jurisdiction of native magistrates, and British pride and prejudice were bitterly offended. A wordy war in the columns of the press showed the native newspapers all in favour of the Viceroy, while European editors strongly denounced his proposed departure from the "tradition of the elders" in Indian affairs, assigning an equally undefinable and unquestionable superiority to white men over the native races. The British provincial governments were almost all opposed to the Bill in its original form, and the result of long and acrimonious discussion was a compromise giving the proposed jurisdiction to native magistrates only after special proofs of competence, and also affording to European offenders the right of appeal from a native magistrate to an European. Europeans were also allowed to claim a trial by jury in most cases coming before District criminal courts.

In agricultural affairs, so deeply important to the native population, the Indian government of Lord Ripon made its greatest mark. We have seen that Lord Mayo instituted an Agricultural Department of administration, but his sudden death came before it was fully developed, and its duties had been afterwards shared between the Home and the Finance Departments. The original idea of Lord Mayo was, between 1881 and 1884, carried into operation in a refounded Department of Revenue and Agriculture. Its great charge was that of developing in every possible way the agricultural resources of the Indian empire, and guarding the natives from all mischiefs connected with the tillage of the soil. The surveying of the land for new and more just and accurate assessments; the superintendence of coolie-emigration; the supply of information on all topics connected with tillage and the care of cattle; the measures to be taken for the prevention and relief of famine, were all entrusted to the new board or secretariat of the Indian government. The recommendations of the Famine Commission were fully considered, and a Famine Fund was formed by the setting-apart of revenue sufficient to provide an annual sum of a million and a half sterling for the creation of preventive irrigation-works and the relief of the destitute in seasons of scarcity. In regard to the land-revenue, cultivators were protected by provision that any increase of income from this source should be mainly derived from a rise of prices, or from improvements made at the expense of the Government, or from an increase of area under tillage. Landlords

and tenants alike were secured against the loss of any profits arising from improvements effected at their own cost. The Bengal Tenancy Bill, finally passed in 1885 under the next Viceroy, was mainly the work of Lord Ripon's government. This important and beneficent measure dealt with the interests of the landlords and tenants in Lower Bengal. The zemindars (landlords) received further facilities for recovering arrears of rent; the ryots (cultivators) had henceforth the transferable interest in their holdings and the "compensation for disturbance" in case of eviction, which have become so familiar to British ears in connection with the endless subject of Irish land.

We must here pay a just tribute to the memory of an eminent native statesman, Sir Salar Jung, member of a family of high rank which for more than a century and a half furnished chief ministers to the state of Haidarabad. Born in 1829, Salar Jung, in 1853, succeeded his uncle in the highest office under the Nizam, and completely reformed the disorganized administration of the country. A mutinous army was reduced to obedience; gangs of robbers were suppressed; irrigation and education received due regard. In 1857, the minister, against the will of the people of the state, remained faithful to British interests, and his sudden death from cholera, in February, 1883, after thirty years of strong and sagacious rule as chief minister and, since 1869, as co-regent of Haidarabad, was officially noticed by the "Governor-General in Council", through a *Gazette Extraordinary*, as that of "an enlightened and experienced friend of the British Government". His merits were fitly recognized in 1871 by installation as a Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India, and, when he visited England five years later, by the freedom of the City of London and the degree of D.C.L. conferred by the University of Oxford. Among the financial reforms effected under Lord Ripon by Sir Evelyn Baring, the Minister in that department, we find the abolition of import-duties on cotton goods and all other articles except alcoholic liquors, arms, and ammunition. In December, 1883, the first International Exhibition ever held in India was opened by the Viceroy at Calcutta, in presence of the Duke and Duchess of Connaught, and of a great company of distinguished Europeans and natives. The extension of popular education which followed the appointment, by Lord Ripon, of a Commission headed by Dr., afterwards Sir William Wilson Hunter,

K.C.S.I., the eminent Civil Servant and writer on Indian affairs, is noticed in a later chapter of this work. At the close of 1884, the enlightened and energetic Viceroy retired from his post amid enthusiastic expressions of gratitude and good-will from the native population of India, who recognized the value of the measures by which Lord Ripon had endeavoured to effect a closer union between the Indian Government and the great body of the Queen's Oriental subjects, and to spread material and moral benefit throughout the country by encouraging and aiding the people in managing their own affairs.

The next Indian Viceroy was the Earl of Dufferin. This brilliant and gifted Irish peer, born in 1826, won literary fame in 1859 by his charming *Letters from High Latitudes.* After serving two years (1864–66) as Under-Secretary for India, he became in 1872 Governor-General of Canada, where he acquired great popularity and credit, as we shall see in another place. Lord Dufferin next became Ambassador at St. Petersburg (1879–81) and at Constantinople, and did good work in Egypt in reforming the government of that country after Arabi Pasha's rebellion. His term of office in India, of four years' duration, was chiefly notable in connection with Russia and with Burma, the history of the latter being given later on. The continued advance of the northern European power in central Asia, especially towards the Afghan territories, had already, before Lord Dufferin's arrival in India early in 1885, excited the lively interest of the British government both at home and at Calcutta. The capture of Merv early in 1884, the cession of Sarakhs by Persia, and the movement of Russian troops towards Herat, caused the appointment, in the autumn of 1884, of a mixed Anglo-Russian Commission for the marking-out of a frontier as the northern limit of Afghanistan. In December, the English representative, General Sir Peter Lumsden, with other diplomatic officials, survey-officers, and an escort of troops, arrived on the scene, only to find that no Russian commissioner was there to meet them. The Russian government, seeking to gain time, then proposed that the question should be discussed and settled in London. On March 30th, 1885, an attack was made by Russian troops, under General Alikhanoff, on Afghan forces stationed at Penjdeh, on their own territory. The rude weapons of the assailed were no match for breech-loaders, and the soldiers of Abdur Rahman, who

had remained on friendly terms with the British government, were slaughtered in heaps and driven away. This perfidious, cowardly, and, in every point, disgraceful outrage was perpetrated at the very time when the Amir was the guest of the new Viceroy at Rawal Pindi, in the Punjab. There can be little doubt that the massacre was due to Russian resentment for Abdur Rahman's friendly relations with Great Britain, and the insult to this country was such as to provoke public indignation which threatened to end in a declaration of war. A large vote of credit was obtained from the House of Commons, and certain preparations for a conflict were set afoot both in India and in England. Meanwhile, Mr. Gladstone's government, acting through Lord Granville as Foreign Secretary, sought explanations from Russia, enabling her diplomatists to cavil at the version of the Penjdeh affair given by Sir Peter Lumsden, and to bring about a compromise in place of a war. The Boundary Commission was set to work, with Colonel Ridgeway as chief British representative in place of Lumsden, and, after some concessions by Russia to Afghan claims, a new frontier was marked out in 1887 so as to clearly decide where Russian territory ends.

The critical position of affairs after the conflict at Penjdeh was very serviceable to the Indian government in affording the most striking and gratifying proofs of loyalty on the part of native rulers and peoples. The princes came forward with the utmost enthusiasm, offering aid in money and men. There were some who were for placing the whole of their forces under direct British control. Others desired leave to pay the whole expenses of their troops while they fought with the Indian army against Russia. Where soldiers were not offered, stores of food and the means of transport were placed at the disposal of the Government, and in some of the British Provinces influential and friendly natives were proposing to raise bodies of volunteers. This spontaneous display of devotion was such as to make it clear that the people in India who have most to lose are not inclined to exchange British for Russian sway. In the following year, 1886, the fortress of Gwalior, occupied by British forces in 1858 after the revolt of the Contingent, was restored to the Maharaja Sindhia in token of good-will and friendship on the part of the Government. In 1887 the Queen's Jubilee was celebrated throughout her dominions in India with the most loyal demonstrations, accompanied by the despatch of gorgeous and

costly presents. The day chosen for this purpose, having regard to the climate, was February 16th, in the cool season, and on June 21st the Maharaja Holkar of Indore and other princes and representatives of the chief native rulers were thus able to be present at the grand ceremonial service in Westminster Abbey. On June 30th, the Queen received their personal congratulations and addresses, with deputations from many native states, at Windsor, where a guard of honour was composed of Hindu and Mohammedan officers of the Indian army. On July 4th the foundation-stone of the Imperial Institute in London was laid by the Queen in presence of the most distinguished of her Indian visitors.

At the close of 1888, with the title of Marquess of Dufferin and Ava, in the peerage of the United Kingdom, the latter part of this designation marking the success of British arms in Burma, the Viceroy made way for the Marquess of Lansdowne. The new ruler, fifth of his title, born in 1845, was grandson of the Whig statesman who, as Lord Henry Petty, succeeded William Pitt, on his death, both as M.P. for Cambridge University and as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and, after taking an active part in favour of the Reform Bill carried in 1832, became a most influential Whig leader, the patriarch of the House of Lords, a Mæcenas in his appreciation of literary men of high merit, the refuser of a dukedom and two offers of the premiership, and the warm personal friend of his sovereign. The Viceroy of India had served under Mr. Gladstone as Under-Secretary both for India and for War, and we shall hereafter see him as filling, from 1883 to 1888, the high office of Governor-General in Canada. During his term of office in India, from 1888 to 1893, much advance was made in the development of local government through the action of Municipal Councils and District Boards on the lines laid down by Lord Ripon. The ability and public spirit of many native gentlemen, freely chosen by their fellow-citizens, have thus been called into operation on behalf of the community. This fact alone shows the vast progress made, since the days of the Sepoy Mutiny and the change of government, in the creation of a new India, wherein the ruling powers and the most enlightened of the native subjects are striving to plant and foster, with due adaptations to a foreign soil, the institutions of Western civilization. The native mind is, in fact, running in advance of the most zealous British advocates of reform. In 1886,

an annual "National Congress" began to sit each December in one of the great towns of the empire. The resolutions there passed aim at the increase of power for the native element through the election, instead of the government-nomination, of members for the various Legislative Councils. A scheme for popular elections, on a large scale, to these bodies was propounded in 1890, but it was generally recognized, both at home and in India, that such methods are still far in advance of the social condition of the mass of the people. Two years later, however, the statute known as Lord Cross' Act, from a former Chief Secretary for India, partly met the desires of the advanced section in the National Congress by increasing the number of members in the Legislative Councils, strengthening the non-official element, and allowing the Provincial Governments in India to provide, according to the special needs and circumstances of their spheres of action, for the introduction and extension of an elective system. Among the most recent social reforms carried out in part, or strongly advocated by the best friends of the natives of India, have been the education of native women in medicine as practitioners for their own sex in a country where custom debars them from consulting male doctors or resorting to a hospital, and the abolition of the evils of enforced celibacy for Hindu women and of the early marriage of native girls. Early in 1894, Lord Lansdowne was succeeded as Viceroy by the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, son of the former Viceroy. The new ruler, educated at Eton and at Balliol College, Oxford, had been a University Commissioner for Scotland, Treasurer of the Household, and Commissioner of Works.

Early in 1895, trouble arose in connection with Chitral, a dependency of Kashmir, and one of the gateways of India on the north-west, only 50 miles south of Russian territory on the upper waters of the Oxus. The ruler of the territory was murdered by his brother, and then power was assumed by a neighbouring chieftain to whom the Indian government, representing the Queen as suzerain of Chitral, gave notice to quit. British officers and troops, escorting ammunition to our Agent at Chitral, Dr. Robertson, were then treacherously attacked, with loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Umra Khan, the intruding chieftain, put to death the Hindu and Sikh sepoys who refused conversion to Islam, and the British officers were kept prisoners. On April 1st an expedition

of 15,000 men crossed the frontier under the command of Lieut.-General Sir Robert Low, an Indian cavalry officer of much experience, who had served under Roberts in Afghanistan. The difficulties of frontier-warfare in India are illustrated by the facts that the route lay through pathless mountains, producing little but brave and hardy foes, and that it was needful, for purposes of transport and other service, to have with the army as many camp-followers as fighting-men, with nearly 10,000 camels, over 7300 bullocks, more than 5000 mules, above 4600 donkeys, and 3500 ponies. The British troops included the Royal Rifles, the Gordon and Seaforth Highlanders and Scottish Borderers, the Bedfordshire and East Lancashire regiments, and the Buffs. They were supported by Bengal Lancers and Sappers, Bengal, Sikh, and Gurkha infantry, and mountain-batteries. The Malakand Pass was forced by Sikhs and Guides against hillmen holding sangars or breastworks of loose stone, and by some of the Scottish and other regiments climbing the steepest ground, and freely using the bayonet. The road was thus opened, with a loss of about seventy officers and men in killed and wounded, into the valley of the Swat river. On the march due northwards for Chitral like fighting occurred. The Swat, shoulder-high for horses, was forded. Colonel Battye, a gallant soldier commanding a regiment of Guides (Sepoys), was killed during the advance. The losses of the enemy caused Umra Khan, on April 16th, to send in the two British officers whom he had taken, asking for terms. General Low, however, still marched ahead, entered the chieftain's abandoned fort, and then pushed his men onwards for Chitral, where a beleaguered garrison, with Dr. Robertson, was in great straits; but the place had been relieved, meanwhile, by a column under Colonel Kelly, marching from the east up the banks of the Gilgit river, and coming down from the north on Chitral. A most gallant defence of the fort had been made by its garrison of 370 men, composed of 90 Sikhs and of Kashmir Imperial Service Rifles, all commanded by Captains Campbell, Townshend, and Baird, with Lieutenants Harley and Gurdon. Mining and counter-mining were employed during the siege of forty-six days, one-fifth of the garrison being killed and wounded. Sher Afzul, one of our chief enemies, was taken prisoner and given up to us by the friendly Khan of Dir. The country up to Chitral was then annexed.

The British decision to retain the territory of Chitral, with garrisons at the Malakand Pass, at Chakdara (on the river Swat), and at other points on the line of communication between the town of Chitral and Peshawur, greatly alarmed and incensed the frontier-tribes, and caused a rising which extended from the passes leading into the newly-annexed country to the land of the Waziris, a hundred and fifty miles south-west of Peshawur. This frontier-war was the most serious that had occurred in India for many years, and compelled the government to put into the field a greater force than had been embodied since the days of the great Mutiny or Sepoy War. The fanatical feeling of the tribes was stirred by preachers who made much of the Turkish victories over Greece in the spring of 1897, and promised like success for a Jhehad or Holy War against British "infidels" and their native supporters in the field.

The first sign of trouble came in the Tochi valley, in the south part of the Waziri country, in the second week of June, 1897. Mr. Gee, the political officer in charge of the Tochi district, was on his way to choose a site for a new fortified outpost to the west, being escorted by 300 men of the 1st Sikhs and 1st Punjab infantry, with two mountain-guns and a dozen Punjab horse, under Colonel Bunny. A sudden and most cowardly attack was made on the column at a village where the troops were resting during the heat of the day, the officers making a meal provided by the chief. The offer of food is usually, with the wildest tribes, a guarantee against any hostile action from them on that day, but the Waziris, on this occasion, were hospitable only with a treacherous aim. Rifle fire from all sides mortally wounded Colonel Bunny and disabled other officers. The mountain-guns opened fire with case-shot, but Captain Browne, the officer in charge, was soon killed, and Lieutenant Cruikshank disabled. In a few minutes the only white man untouched was Mr. Gee. The native officers of the Sikhs and Punjabis showed splendid courage, rallying their men, and retiring in steady fight, carrying off the bodies of the dead officers, all the wounded, and the two guns. The retreat to a safe position at Dattakhel, to the east, was effected with a loss of fifty-two men killed and wounded, in addition to the six British officers, and of much ammunition and other stores. Only one of the British officers long survived this

action, the first of a contest which was to cause very serious losses among that class of leaders in the Indian army.

Prompt measures were taken to punish the treachery of the assailants, and Major-general Bird, in command of the Punjab Frontier Force, marched into the Tochi Valley with two brigades, composed of Sikh and Punjabi infantry, the 3rd Battalion Rifle Brigade, and the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders, with ten mountain-guns, two squadrons of Punjab cavalry, and a company of Bombay Sappers and Miners. One brigade was commanded by General Penn Symons, to be seen hereafter in the South African war. No resistance was made to this strong force, and the expedition returned after destroying by explosion and burning the towers and houses of the village where the attack was made. This event came in the last week of July. A far more serious outbreak was at hand.

The tribesmen of the Swat valley, near the Malakand Pass, rose in force at the very time when General Bird was in the Waziri country far away. A man locally known as the Mad "Mullah" (religious leader), reputed to work miracles, was the chief instigator of the movement. The two British camps at the Malakand Pass were attacked by thousands of furious men on July 26th, and the enemy's assaults were repelled only with the loss of one British officer killed, and five wounded (two mortally) and with fifty-two "casualties" (twenty-one mortal) among the native troops. The tribesmen carried away about 10,000 rounds of ammunition. On the following day there was more severe fighting, with ten killed and forty-five wounded among the Malakand garrison, and the enemy, renewing their assaults with fanatical zeal, in spite of severe losses, were not disposed of until August 1st, after a six-days' contest. At the same time, the fort at Chakdara, with a garrison of about 250 men, was blockaded by thousands of tribesmen so placed as to command with their fire much of the interior of the works. On August 1st, Lieutenant Rattray, the commandant, sent by heliograph the two words "Help us!" to Malakand camp.

Both places were at last relieved by the advance of a division—the Malakand Field Force—under the command of Sir Bindon Blood, who had been General Low's chief of the staff in the Chitral campaign. There were two brigades, composed of Sikhs

and Punjabis, with the 1st East Kent (the "Buffs"), 1st West Kent, Guides' infantry and cavalry, five squadrons Bengal Lancers, and twenty-four guns, making up, with native sappers and miners, about 8000 men. The assailants of the Malakand camp, attacked with the bayonet, and hotly pursued by horsemen, were soon dispersed, and the besiegers at Chakdara were treated in the same fashion. In the following days, many deputations of tribesmen came in to make submission, but, as large bodies of men were in arms in the upper Swat valley, a third brigade was formed of a battalion each of Punjabis and Goorkhas, the 1st Gordons, and the 2nd Highland Light Infantry.

On August 17th, Sir Bindon Blood advanced northwards with an infantry brigade, six squadrons, and three batteries, and was soon engaged with the enemy at a place called Landaki, a few miles above Chakdara. About 5000 tribesmen, armed with rifles, or with sword or spear, held a strong position above a narrow pass called the "Gate of Swat". The fire of our batteries, and a threatened front attack, held the enemy while an out-flanking movement was developed, and then they fled in startled fashion. The assailants, through skilful work of their general, had so far only seven men wounded. A tragical incident occurred, however, during the pursuit. A party of the tribesmen, rallying at a cemetery marked by a group of trees and a ruined Buddhist chapel, was attacked by Colonel Adams with a single squadron. With him rode two non-combatant officers, Lieutenant Greaves (Lancashire Fusiliers), correspondent of the *Times of India*, and Lieutenant Viscount Fincastle (son and heir of the Earl of Dunmore, in the Peerage of Scotland), correspondent of the London *Times*. In a struggle with a group of the enemy, Greaves and Lieutenant MacLean were mortally wounded, their bodies being rescued from the knives of the foe by the gallant efforts of Adams and Fincastle, who both received the Victoria Cross. Lord Fincastle was at once attached by General Blood to the Guides' Cavalry. The affair at Landaki was quickly followed by the submission of the tribes, peace in the Swat valley being guaranteed by the surrender of rifles. A far more formidable task was already confronting the British commanders and their men. The Mohmund, the Afridi, and the Orakzai tribesmen, to the north and west of Peshawur, were up in arms.

On August 9th, some thousands of Mohmunds were defeated with severe loss, and driven back to their hills, when they attacked the fort of Shabkadr, eighteen miles north of Peshawur. A fortnight later, the fort of Ali Musjid, at the entrance of the Khyber Pass, held by some of the Khyber Rifles, themselves Afridis, in the Government service as armed police, was abandoned on the approach of some thousands of Afridi tribesmen. Fort Maude, held by fifty Khyber Rifles, was next attacked, but the assailants were resisted by rifle-fire. The enemy were checked for a time by re-inforcements, but were too strong to be fairly assailed, and the garrison abandoned the post, and retired, with the relieving column, to Fort Jamrud, nearer to Peshawur. For many weeks the trade-route of the Khyber was closed, though the enemy made no further movement towards the frontier. The Afridis were marching on Lundi Kotal, a large loop-holed fort near the summit of the pass, held by 370 men, of whom 250 were Afridis, of the Khyber Rifles, under five native officers. The rest of the garrison were of the Mohmund, Shinwari, and other neighbouring tribes. The post was at once lost by treacherous surrender, with 10,000 rounds of ammunition. The Afridis then dispersed to their homes, promising their leaders, the mullahs, to re-assemble in the middle of September. On that same day, August 26th, the Orakzais, in the Tirah valley, about forty miles south-west of Peshawur, broke out, and some indecisive fighting took place between them and some troops, Punjabis and two companies of Royal Scots Fusiliers, under General Yeatman-Biggs, marching north-westwards from Kohat. The men of the Kuram valley, to the west, and the Samana Range, to the south, were also in the field, burning villages of people friendly to the Government, robbing mail-carts, and firing into police-posts.

In the second week of September, General Yeatman-Biggs checked the Orakzais and Afridis in a move eastward from the Samana Range, and then the enemy attacked the posts to the west, towards the Afghan frontier. At Fort Saragheri the most devoted courage was shown by twenty-one men of the 36th Sikhs, who all died at their posts before it could be captured. Fort Gulistan, held by 165 men of the same corps, under Major Des Vœux, was most gallantly defended for three days and nights, until rescue came, on September 15th, from a force under

General Yeatman-Biggs, who also cleared the enemy from the neighbourhood of Fort Lockhart. The Orakzais and Afridis had dispersed for a time, but the Indian Government resolved to invade the territory of the tribes in great force, in order to prove that British power could reach them even in the fastnesses of a country which was hitherto, to a large extent, unmapped, and unknown to the British officers on the frontier. The plan of campaign included the forcing of a passage through all the chief valleys, the blowing-up of fortress-towers, the burning of villages, and the completion of temporary ruin for the disturbers of the peace in the consumption or destruction of their stores of grain and forage. It is possible here to indicate only a few points of the complicated operations which ensued. The difficulties encountered and overcome by the British and native troops were very great. The vast trains of supply were ever open to attack by men who knew all the ground. The enemy, armed with excellent rifles, used their weapons with consummate skill in aim and in keeping under cover. The persistence and skill of the tribesmen in assailing convoys, and scouting and foraging parties, and in harassing our weary men at night by random firing into the camps, or "sniping", as the phrase was, caused endless trouble. The deeds of heroic self-devotion for the common cause, among both British troops and Sepoys, were very many, and the Tirah campaign, in its details, was one of great interest.

The work in hand divided itself naturally into two parts—the march into the Mohmund country north of Peshawur, under General Sir Bindon Blood, and the still larger campaign against the Afridis and the Orakzais, under the personal command of Sir William Lockhart, head of the Punjab army, who was about to become Commander-in-Chief in India. Dealing first with the Mohmund operations, we find Sir Bindon Blood, with one division, marching on Nawagai, about thirty miles west of the Malakand Pass, and fifty miles north of Peshawur. Sharp fighting occurred in night-attacks of the enemy on our camps, and especially, on September 16th, in a pitched battle of Brigadier-General Jeffreys against the tribesmen. Attacked by thousands of men as he retired to camp after burning villages and blowing up towers, he defeated them with a loss to his troops of nearly 150 killed and wounded, including eight British officers, and forced

them to ask for terms. After some further encounters, and the capture of the leader's village, the war in that quarter was ended, early in October, by the surrender of arms.

The army under Sir William Lockhart, known as the Tirah Expeditionary Force, consisted of nearly 35,000 fighting men, including more than 11,000 British troops, with 13,000 pack mules, 2200 camels, and above 18,000 native followers. Among the British soldiers were the 1st Devonshire, 2nd Derbyshire, 2nd Yorkshire, 1st West Surrey, 1st Gordon Highlanders, 1st Dorsetshire, 1st Northamptonshire, 2nd King's Own Scottish Borderers, 2nd Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, and 2nd Oxfordshire Light Infantry. The native troops comprised many battalions and squadrons of Goorkhas, Punjabis, Sikhs, Bengal Cavalry, and Bengal Lancers, with Imperial Service Infantry of the troops organized in the native states, by their loyal princes, for action with the Imperial forces. The advance was made in the middle of October, and the vanguard soon found the enemy in great force at the Pass of Dargai, in the Samana Range, about forty miles west of Kohat. Their position was strengthened by *sungars* or stone breastworks, and on October 18th the attack began, with the 3rd Goorkhas leading, followed in line by the Scottish Borderers, and then the Northamptons. A flanking movement by another brigade caused the tribesmen to retire, and the village of Dargai was occupied, and the towers blown up. As the troops returned to camp, the enemy attacked in force, but were stopped by the 15th Sikhs, the Gordons, and some mountain-guns.

The reason for this withdrawal from the captured Dargai heights has never been explained, and the movement caused severe loss two days later. On October 20th, General Yeatman-Biggs, commanding the Second Division, attacked the heights in front, sending up a brigade composed of the 1st Gordons, 1st Dorsets, 2nd Goorkhas, and 15th Sikhs, with other troops in reserve. There were twenty-four guns to support the infantry-assault. The Goorkhas led the way, under a deadly fire, which laid low many men, and drove the rest to cover. The Dorsets and Derbyshires, rushing forward in parties across the fire-zone, were almost all disabled or forced to retire. Many deeds of daring and self-sacrifice were performed, but at noon the enemy's position was still intact, and matters looked serious. Yeatman-

Biggs, not recovered from illness, and directing matters from his camp-bed on a ridge near at hand, said that the position must be stormed at any cost, and bade Kempster, commanding the 3rd Brigade, take the Gordon Highlanders and the 3rd Sikhs. The ground was so difficult that it took these troops a full hour to climb to the pines where the remnant of the 2nd Goorkhas were lying. There they formed for the final rush, the Gordons in front, and Colonel Mathias, turning to his splendid battalion, cried, "Highlanders, the General says the position must be taken at all costs. The Gordons will take it!" The guns poured a storm of shells into the enemy's sungars, the Highlanders cheered, and the pipes screamed the charge. On went the men, Mathias in front. Major Macbean, his second in command, instantly dropped close at his side, and men fell on all sides. The Sikhs followed closely, drawing on with them the Dorsets, Derbyshires, and brave little Goorkhas. Two of the Gordon pipers were killed, and three more wounded, and it was then that the famous George Findlater, shot through both legs, went on with his music propped against a rock. The enemy fled as the bayonets of the Gordons gleamed over the brink of the height. This brilliant victory was won at the cost of about 200 killed and wounded, including four officers slain and eleven disabled. Two days later, the Gordons were thanked on parade by Sir William Lockhart. Piper Findlater gained the V.C., with Private Lawson, also of the Gordons, for saving the lives of two comrades under a heavy fire, in which he was twice wounded. The way through the Samana Range was now open for a further advance.

A halt was made for some days on the Khauki River, north of Dargai, owing to the difficulty of getting up supplies, and the Afridis, believing that the invaders of their territory were daunted by losses, gave much trouble in night-attacks on the camp. This "sniping" was so serious that on one evening thirty-four officers and men were killed and wounded, some as they sat at dinner, others as they lay in their tents, and Sir William Lockhart had a narrow escape. Convoys were assailed, and many valuable transport-animals were killed or disabled. On the morning of October 28th, to the joy of the troops, the march was resumed, and the Sampagha Pass, to the north, leading into the Tirah valley, was cleared of the enemy in brilliant style, with the loss of only

twenty-four men. The victorious troops then found themselves in a wide fertile region, with abundant timber and terraced fields. On October 31st the advance was resumed. Five miles to the north were the slopes leading to the Arhanga Pass, the gateway of the Tirah plateau, the stronghold of the Afridi tribes, never yet trodden by the foot of an invader.

The pass was captured after a slight resistance, the enemy now resorting to the guerilla-warfare of attacks on transport, causing much trouble and loss, the latter including, on one occasion, seventy-one mules, 10,000 rounds of Lee-Metford cartridges, and the kits of 350 men. Another halt was made in order to allow the co-operation of other columns coming from Peshawur and from the west, so as to inclose the foe. Meanwhile, the main body, under General Lockhart, engaged in daily expeditions, foraging for supplies, burning hostile villages, and protecting convoys and surveying-parties. Skirmishes by day and "sniping" by night caused many casualties, and sickness was rife, due to hard work and exposure in a mountain-region, with burning heat by day and bitter cold after sunset.

In the first week of November, in the Kurram valley, to the west, a native officer and thirty-five Sikhs were cut off, and, refusing to surrender, killed to the last man. Three days later, on November 9th, General Lockhart was out with a reconnaissance force to Saran Sar, east of his camp, the troops being the Northamptons, the Dorsets, and two battalions of Sikhs, with two mountain-batteries and a company of Engineers. On the return, a company of the Northamptons, covering the retirement, was suddenly attacked, at close range, from a pine-wood on the left, with Lee-Metford rifles firing the cartridges recently captured. Assistance came from the front, the Dorsets and the 36th Sikhs guarding the flanks, and then, as darkness fell, some companies of the Northamptons, encumbered with wounded, and hard pressed by the enemy, wandered into a nullah, or rocky gully, and were severely assailed from all sides. When camp was reached, it was found that Lieutenant MacIntyre, a sergeant, and eleven men were missing. On the next morning their bodies were found, slain by rifle-fire, at the bottom of a ravine. They had perished rather than abandon wounded comrades. In this reconnaissance nearly seventy officers and men had fallen in killed and wounded.

There was more guerilla-warfare in the Tirah country, with considerable loss to the British force in various encounters, the enemy firing with accurate aim from cover. Private Vickery, of the Dorsets, one of a detachment that became involved, in darkness, in a network of gullies on the way back to camp, won the Victoria Cross by an act of the utmost daring. Struck in the foot by a bullet, with a wounded comrade lying beside him, he was attacked by three swordsmen. He shot the first, bayoneted the second, and brained the third with his clubbed rifle, and then struggled on to camp, carrying his friend. Colonel Haughton, of the 36th Sikhs, and Major Des Vœux, the defender of Fort Gulistan, passed the same night entrenched with about 500 men in some ruined houses, being surrounded by masses of the enemy. The cold was intense, and there was nothing to eat. At early morning they returned to camp, the total loss during the march of Kempster's brigade on this occasion, November 16th, reaching about seventy, including four British officers killed and three wounded. These instances sufficiently show the nature of the campaign. The enemy's assaults were constantly repulsed; enormous supplies were captured; and on one morning seventy towers were blown up by a British brigade. On November 21st some of the Afridi clans submitted, agreeing to pay 50,000 rupees and to hand over 800 good rifles. Other tribes held out, the chief being the warlike Zakka Khel, in the Bara valley, to the north of the Tirah country.

As the next stage of the contest, Sir William Lockhart, sending back the bulk of his transport, and holding the passes on all sides with troops, advanced, on December 10th, for the new scene of operations. Progress was attended by constant rifle-fire from the hills at long range, causing some loss to the men, and above a hundred baggage-animals, with their loads, were captured by the Afridis. The rear-guard was continuously fighting, until, in the third week of the month, the force, having met other columns, settled down for a brief well-earned rest at Fort Bara. Some of the British battalions, worn away by fighting and disease, were replaced by fresh troops from the reserve-brigade at Rawul Pindi. General Lockhart's new programme included the re-occupation of the Khyber Pass forts, and a march into the Bazar valley, north of the Bara district. On December

18th the advance began. The operations in the Khyber and the Bazar valley met with stout resistance from the Afridis, and the losses incurred included Sir Henry Havelock-Allan, present as Sir William Lockhart's guest, the veteran son of the famous Havelock of the Mutiny days. He was killed on December 30th, by a long-range bullet from an Afridi sharpshooter, as he was riding with a small escort from Ali Musjid to Fort Jamrud. As the result of this part of the campaign, the Khyber Pass forts came again into our possession, and the Pass was opened for trade, after being for four months closed by the hostile tribesmen. Among the many victims of sickness was General Yeatman-Biggs, in bad health almost from the outset of the campaign. More than once urged by his chief to leave the front, he was unwilling at first to yield, but at last resigning his command and starting for Calcutta, he died on January 4th, 1898, at Peshawur. A General Order expressed the regret of the army for the premature loss of an officer of distinguished service in China, South Africa, Egypt, and on the north-west frontier of India.

In the early days of 1898, there was more sharp fighting with the Afridis near the Khyber Pass, and on January 29th the Yorkshire Light Infantry, under fire for the first time, and the 36th Sikhs, under Colonel Haughton, were strongly assailed by superior numbers. The fighting was so close that the officers freely used their revolvers to keep the enemy at bay. The veteran Haughton, whose courage, coolness, and skill had been the admiration of all during the Tirah campaign, died like a hero, firing a rifle at the swarming foes. His adjutant, Captain Turing, was shot dead at his side. Three lieutenants of the Yorkshires also perished, and Major Earle and two others were wounded. The total loss was fifty-nine, of whom twenty-two were killed. The enemy withdrew when re-inforcements arrived. During February and March, negotiations with the chiefs were being carried on, the Afridis being blockaded in their hills. At last the headmen came in and submitted, a result due to Sir William Lockhart's personal influence. On April 4th he relinquished the command in a General Order, praising the spirit and endurance of all ranks of his force. On leaving Peshawur he was loudly cheered by tribesmen from the neighbouring district.

In another quarter, a campaign had been conducted in January, by Sir Bindon Blood, among the Bunerwals, a tribe to the east of the Malakand Pass, who had been in the field in the action at Landaki, and had failed to make submission. Two brigades, including the East and West Kents, the Highland Light Infantry, four Punjabi battalions, some batteries, and four squadrons of horse, were employed. On January 6th, a small battle was fought at the Tangao Pass, leading into the Buner country, and the position, only held by the enemy as a point of honour before submission, was taken with most trifling loss. The whole war ended, after nine months since the first outbreak, in the submission of the Zakka Khel Afridis, the most stubborn of the border tribes.

The border-campaign with the tribes had not been wholly satisfactory in its events and issue. The enemy had suffered severe losses, rather in the destruction of their homes and petty forts, and of food and forage, than of men, and British power had been asserted in regions previously unvisited by our troops. The courage, discipline, and patience of the men engaged had been unsurpassed. They had gained much experience in a new style of warfare against very skilful, well-armed, and stubborn foes. The little Goorkhas, among the native troops, ever gay in fight, with the hearts of lions, had been as wonderful as they always are in mountain-warfare. The British officers had exposed themselves with their usual devoted courage, and had suffered terribly in courting danger for the honour of their corps and as an example and encouragement to their followers under heavy well-directed fire. Among the mistakes of the campaign was the abandonment of the Dargai position after its first seizure. The second capture of the formidable heights had, however, a great moral effect on the Afridis, who admitted that they had never had such a beating, and the brilliant feat in which the Gordons had so large a share was talked of among Mussulmans all over India, with excellent results for the maintenance of the repute of the Indian army as invincible in all warfare. We conclude with the statement that from June 10th, 1897, to February 7th, 1898, the forces engaged had 684 British and 1233 native troops killed and wounded, including forty-three British officers killed and ninety disabled.

The military troubles of the year 1898 did not end with the

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frontier-warfare. In January, there was an outbreak in Mekran, a sandy coast-district of Baluchistan, and on the 9th a survey-party in charge of Captain Burn, R.E., was attacked in the Kej valley, with the slaughter of many native guards and survey-assistants, and the loss of the Government treasure-chest. The assailants belonged to a tribe rebelling against the Khan of Khelat, a petty potentate loyal to the British cause. An expedition was sent by sea from Karachi, comprising some hundreds of infantry and two guns under Colonel Mayne, with some horsemen and engineers. The British officer soon disposed of the enemy. On January 31st he attacked their force, 1500 strong, at the western pass of Turbat, and in a two hours' action completely routed them, with the loss of about 100 killed, including several chiefs. His force suffered to the extent only of three Baluchis killed and eight wounded, with two casualties among the gunners. Some later operations completely restored order in the scene of disturbance.

In 1896–97 a terrible famine, due to drought, occurred in north-west and central India. The usual energetic measures were taken in the distribution of food and the establishment of relief-works, and British charity, through a "Lord Mayor's Fund", subscribed about £540,000 for the aid of sufferers. In June, 1897, an earthquake of unusual severity for India did much damage in Calcutta, and caused serious loss of life and property in Assam. In 1896–97, some thousands of deaths occurred in and near Bombay from an attack of "plague". In January, 1899, Lord Elgin was succeeded as Viceroy by Lord Curzon of Kedleston. The new ruler, after a brilliant career at Oxford University, had gained valuable knowledge and experience as a traveller in the East, and had filled the offices of Under-Secretary of State for India and for Foreign Affairs. He found himself called upon to deal with a still more serious famine, due to drought in north-western and central India. Large sums of money were again subscribed to a Lord Mayor's Fund. In July, 1900, over six millions of persons were in receipt of relief, and cholera was making ravages among the hapless victims of hunger. Before the end of the year, sufficient, and, in some parts, copious rains had fallen in the vast districts affected, and this downpour, combined with the persistent efforts of the government in furnishing food, gradually made an end of the suffering on the verge of which many millions of the teeming

LORD CURZON OF KEDLESTON

The Right Hon. Lord Curzon of Kedleston was born on January 11th, 1859, eldest son of the Rev. A. N. H. Curzon, 4th Baron Scarsdale. Educated at Eton and at Balliol College, Oxford, Mr. Curzon, after a brilliant career at his University as a prize-essayist and a debater at the Oxford "Union", entered on an extensive course of travel which took him to Central Asia, Persia, Afghanistan, the Pamirs, Siam, Indo-China, and Korea. His faculty of observation and keen intelligence were displayed in the works entitled *Russia in Central Asia* (1889), *Problems of the Far East* (1894) and other books. In the House of Commons Mr. Curzon showed much skill in debate, and in 1891–92 was Under-Secretary for India, and in 1895–98 held the same post for Foreign Affairs. In 1898, at an early age for a post so difficult and responsible, he was appointed Viceroy and Governor-General of India, and created Baron Curzon in the Peerage of Ireland.

From a Photograph by W. & D. Downey

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LORD CURZON OF KEDLESTON.

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people of India seem destined to exist, at the mercy of the seasons, and doomed to perish in great numbers before food can be brought up from other regions and distributed over an extensive area. There can be little doubt that the only effective means of preventing this loss of life is the making, on the largest scale, of irrigation-canals for the conveyance of water to every cultivated region of the plains. In the first half of the century, a great and good Anglo-Indian civilian, Sir Arthur Cotton, one of the finest types of British administrators in India, an "expert" of the highest class, as sound-minded and honest as he was able and experienced, proved by his own work the efficacy of irrigation. He was in charge of a great territory drained by the Godavari, one of the chief rivers of India, the largest in the Deccan, rising within fifty miles of the Indian Ocean, on the west, and flowing south-east across the peninsula to the Bay of Bengal. Cotton's great irrigation-works included a magnificent *annicut* or dam at the head of the delta, throwing off three main canals with a distributing length of 528 miles, and the supply of water thus obtained turned the entire deltaic region of the Godavari into a great garden of perennial crops, and ensured a large province against famine, not only without cost to the state, but with direct profit to the exchequer. For fifty years this great administrator, with less success than he deserved, persistently urged the making of canals on successive Indian Viceroys and Secretaries of State, but they have hitherto failed to give the first place to canals, instead of to railways, in the construction of public works.

In concluding the history of British India, apart from Burma and Assam, down to the present time, we may note the means of defence against external and internal foes now provided by her rulers. It becomes yearly of greater importance that in that quarter of our vast Empire we should be really and evidently strong. We have to deal with and to govern, not the ancient India, which was, in Sir William Hunter's words, a mere dealer in curiosities, nor the India of the Company, which was a retail-trader in luxuries, but with a new India which is a wholesale producer of staples, with an enormous export of the grain which feeds and of the fibres that clothe distant nations. The very growth in prosperity and power has brought with it new difficulties and dangers. Among the

many ceaseless labours of our administration we have, by the educational system, created a kind of aristocracy of intellect entirely after our own model in the persons of many thousands of rising young men, whose studies have been carried on at our schools and colleges, and in the pages of our class-books, and who have adopted British views as to the ends of government and the principles of legislation and of public life. They are yearly asking for and obtaining a larger share of influence and of power, and we are, in the policy of all the later Viceroys, more and more governing the peoples of India, not only for themselves, but by themselves. Our position in regard to the native subject-population, or the internal difficulty, lies in the necessity, as matters exist at present, of combining perfect tolerance in religious affairs, and respect for a free press and a free right of public meeting, and an educational system ever producing better results, with a system of administration which is in many respects, as will be seen, practically despotic. The solid foundation of our power lies in the justice and beneficence of a rule which should win the ever-growing confidence of the natives in the advantages of living under British control. At the same time, since the mere suspicion of weakness would endanger the security of the whole fabric of our dominion, it is imperatively necessary to be strong in the material and moral force of military strength. The external danger lies in the advance of our borders to meet the approaches of an aggressive and unscrupulous European and Asiatic Power. It is within the last few years that, mainly under the auspices of Sir Frederick, now Lord, Roberts as commander-in-chief in India, a new departure has been made in military affairs. That distinguished soldier, born at Cawnpore in 1832, son of an Indian officer, General Sir Abraham Roberts, and educated at Eton, Sandhurst, and Addiscombe, entered the Bengal Artillery in 1851, and did good service during the Mutiny in most of the great events, including the siege and assault of Delhi and the relief and the final capture of Lucknow. His Victoria Cross was won by the pursuit of two Sepoys who were hurrying off with a captured colour, which he tore from their grasp at the cost of both their lives. He served in the Abyssinian expedition of 1868, and in the Lushai warfare of 1871–72, winning his chief military renown, as we lately saw, in the Afghan contest of 1879-80. After commanding the Madras army for four years, Roberts at-

tained in 1885 the highest military post in India, and was then enabled to render perhaps the most valuable services of his whole career, extending, on his return to England in 1893, over more than forty-one years. In dealing with the now completed work of strengthening the North-western frontier against possible invaders, we must not fail to give due credit to Lord Roberts' predecessor in the chief command, Sir Donald Stewart, who sketched out a great plan of defence, to which his successor made important additions of his own devising. The British frontier has been advanced to the crests of the passes leading from Afghanistan towards our territory, and in the opinion of military experts the whole north-west has been made impregnable by the line of forts and fortified posts, and the military and strategic railways, constructed in carrying out the elaborate scheme for repelling aggression in that vital point. Only a great European army, dragging behind it the heaviest of modern artillery, could venture to approach one of the formidable strongholds that confront invaders coming from that quarter. When we turn to the new means of safety provided against internal troubles, we find that throughout the territory of Bengal and Madras fortified posts have been created as places of refuge for the European population in the event of a native rising. If such fastnesses had existed in 1857, the Sepoy revolt would probably have been quelled within a few weeks, and our Indian records would have been devoid of the atrocious massacres and avenging scenes of that tragical time. The British garrison of India has been augmented by more than ten thousand men, permitting a large increase of our native troops, and thus making India ready for defence against a first-class European Power. Apart from the re-organization of our own native army effected before and during the administration of Lord Roberts, an important advance has been made in the development of new elements of defence. We saw how, in 1885, when war with Russia seemed to be at hand, many of the native princes made the most loyal offers of aid. Under the civil and military rule of Lords Lansdowne and Roberts, this spirit was turned to good and permanent account. A carefully planned system of Imperial Contingents was organized and initiated, and many of the feudatory rulers now maintain, at their own cost, bodies of troops no longer equipped in antique and useless fashion, but carefully armed and trained into fitness to fight beside British

troops in time of need. Lastly, Lord Roberts, affectionately known among the privates as "Bobs", proved himself at once the soldier's and his country's friend in the excellent provisions made for the physical and moral benefit of the men. The troops serving in India are now clad suitably for the climate and for their work; their rations have been improved, and they enjoy many minor comforts which promote their efficiency by rendering them more contented with the service. Institutes, reading-rooms, recreation-grounds, and gardens provided for their use powerfully aid the cause of temperance which, under the zealous advocacy and efforts of civilian and military reformers, now shows under the colours in India many thousands of total abstainers, men whose names rarely appear on the punishment-rolls of their regiments.

The total strength of the European army, exclusive of native artificers and followers, for the year 1896–7, was 74,000 officers and men, composed of over 13,000 Royal Artillery, manning over 60 batteries of field-guns, besides mountain- and garrison-pieces; about 5600 Cavalry, 340 Royal Engineers, nearly 54,000 Infantry, and over 800 staff-officers. The regular Native Army consists of about 4500 artillery, 23,000 cavalry, nearly 4000 sappers and miners, and about 114,000 infantry. The European officers of this force number 1580, the native officers being about 2760. The entire European and native army thus amounts to about 220,000 men. It is well to note the great change, since the days of the Mutiny, in the proportion of European to native troops. In 1856, there were 40,000 British soldiers and 215,000 natives; there are now 74,000 British and 145,000 natives; in other words, the preponderance of the native element has been reduced from over 5 to 1 to less than 2 to 1. The effective strength both of the European troops against internal foes and of the combined armies, British and native, against foreign adversaries, has been vastly increased by the creation of railways, affording the means of rapid concentration and movement, and by the institution of a regular transport-service with an organization for supplying animal-carriage, hospital-servants, and other requisites for an army in the field. The improvement in the health of our soldiers in India through sanitary care has been such that the death-rate has been reduced from nearly 7 per cent in 1856 to a little over 1½ per cent. The European military strength is augmented by the existence of over 20,000

"efficient" Volunteers. The special contingents, or "Imperial Service" troops, of the native princes as above mentioned now number nearly 18,000 men, regularly inspected by British officers, by far the largest force, 4400 men, being furnished by Kashmir (Cashmere), while the contingents of Patiala, Alwar, Bhartpur, and Jaipur average 1500, and Gwalior, Jodhpur, and Mysore each supply 1200 men.

CHAPTER VII.

British Possessions in Asia—*Continued.*

India: Physical Features and Products.

Mountains and rivers of the North—Its scenery—Luxuriant vegetation—Central and Southern India—Eastern and Western Ghats—Climatic conditions—Monsoons, rainfall, and temperature—The death-rate—Advance of the study of medicine—Zoology of the country—Deaths caused by wild beasts and snake-bites—Tiger-hunting—A "man-eating" leopard—The elephant and rhinoceros—Birds—Reptiles—Fishes—Insects—Mineral resources of the land—Salt and saltpetre—Coal and iron-ore—Quartz-crushing for gold—Limestone and building-stone—Precious stones.

The vast region known as India presents natural features and phenomena on a very great and varied scale. The huge double mountain-wall of the Himalayas, running nearly east and west for over 1700 miles, with a breadth from north to south of from 150 to 250 miles, has its higher ranges crowned with never-melting snow, lying on mountains, of which Kanchanjanga exceeds 28,000 feet in elevation, and Mount Everest, the loftiest measured peak in the world, just surpasses 29,000. In this great northern barrier, largely unexplored, there are glaciers of which one is known to have a length of 60 miles, and in the valleys rise some of the greater Asiatic rivers, the Indus and the Sutlej, the Ganges and the Tsan-pu (Sangpu) or Brahmaputra. There are passes, used as trade-routes into Tibet and Eastern Turkistan, at a height of 18,000 feet, but the huge ramparts provided by nature to guard the northern frontier of India are nowhere penetrable by a modern army. In a different way, these lofty mountains render great service to the people of the tropical plains below by intercepting a large portion of the clouds carried from the Indian Ocean by the monsoons (regular or "season" winds), and causing them to deposit their moisture either as rain or snow, drenching the lower region

with the rainfall, and by rain and snow creating and constantly feeding the mighty rivers that descend for the good of the tillers of the soil in the Punjab, the North-west Provinces, Oudh, and Bengal. The Himalayan vegetation, according to the height above sea-level in three well-defined zones, is tropical, temperate, or arctic, displaying tree-ferns and bamboos, ilexes and mountain-oaks, and many varieties of pine and fir; the chestnut, the walnut, and the maple; and furnishing for our British parks, gardens, and glass-houses the fine deodar or Himalayan cedar, the gay rhododendron, and the fantastic flowers of the orchid-race. Barley, oats, millets, and several other small grains, rice in the moist ground of warm valleys, and the potato, introduced from England, and largely grown on land wastefully cleared of forest, are the chief food-plants of the Himalayan hill-tribes. Some faint conception of the grandeur of the scenery, apart from the towering strongholds of frost and snow rising often two miles higher than the topmost ground of the Matterhorn and Mont Blanc, may be formed from the facts that the Indus, rising in Tibet at 16,000 feet above sea-level, bursts through the western ranges of the Himalayas by a gorge in Kashmir nearly three miles in depth, while the Sutlej, issuing from a lake in Tibet, makes its way through the great range by a ravine where the ground ascends on each side to 20,000 feet, and at one part of its course flows in rocky rapids, between bare and precipitous mountains towering above, with a savage force that sometimes reduces to small fragments the great cedars and pines committed to its waters for conveyance to the plains of the Punjab. All detailed description in this part of our subject—the alluvial and diluvial work of the great rivers, the change of the Brahmaputra's course, the method of deposits in forming deltas, the tributaries and the traffic, the fertilizing bounty of holy Ganges in her irrigation-canals and in the silt of her overflow on the land beside her banks—these and a hundred other interesting and important matters concerning the rivers of northern India should be sought in those wonderful books of Sir William Hunter's, *The Indian Empire* and *The Imperial Gazetteer of India*. The fertility of soil induced by the rains and rivers in northern India is such that two harvests are yearly reaped in most districts from land favourably placed, and in Lower Bengal, after pulses, oil-seeds, pease, and various green-crops have been taken off the ground in the spring, early rice-crops

follow between July and September, and the chief rice-harvest of the year comes two or three months later.

The scenery in the upper and middle courses of the Bengal rivers presents a country gently undulating upwards from the banks in a vast expanse adorned with fine timber-trees and dotted here and there with villages of mud-built huts. Groves of mango-trees from forty to fifty feet in height, thickly-branched and spreading at the top, with densely-crowded lengthy pointed leaves, make the air fragrant in the spring-time with blossoms like to those of the sweet chestnut, and yield in summer their abundant egg-shaped yellow or ruddy fruit. The noble peepul (pipal) or sacred fig, with masses of green leaves; the wild cotton-tree, blazing with large crimson blossoms that come forth before the leaves; the tall graceful tamarind with its dainty leaflets, feathery-fine, arranged in pairs upon the stalk, rise into air above the field-crops. Of all the Indian trees, the banyan is the strangest to the European eye. This wondrous member of the fig-tree tribe, with oval heart-shaped leaves from five to six inches long, has branches that throw down hanging offshoots which, rooting in the ground, become new stems and spread the mother-tree abroad until a very wood is formed, lasting for ages after the central trunk has perished from decay. We have record of a banyan thus displaying in irregular colonnades above three hundred stems as large as those of good-sized oaks and ten times as many of inferior size, the whole of them together covering a space on which seven thousand persons could stand beneath the leafage, which contains a world of forest-life in birds, and native bats that live upon the fruit, a scarlet fig no bigger than a cherry, growing in pairs from the axils of the leaves, and crowds of chattering monkeys that make the foliage as well as fruit their food. The banyan is an object of special reverence to Brahmans, as the peepul is to Buddhists. As the traveller down the stream or by the river-bank draws nearer to the sea, palm-trees arise upon the view, and in the delta he beholds the rice-fields stretching flat and far away, bordered by various tufted palms producing the areca-nut or betel, the cocoa-nut, the date. There, too, are growing in abundance the gigantic grasses called bamboos, with jointed stems, hard, light, elastic, hollow save for the light spongy pith, and rising to a height of from ten to fifty feet. Of all productions in the vegetable world, the cocoa-palm and the bamboo are most

remarkable for their varied uses to the natives of the provinces that lie on the Indian coasts. The qualities of strength, lightness, elasticity, and hollowness in the bamboo adapt it for arrows, quivers, bows, and shafts of javelin, spear, and lance; the native mariner employs it for the masts and spars of smaller craft and to make decks for boats; the fisherman forms from it his angling-rods and fishing-poles and stakes for netting. The builder and the maker of furniture and utensils find in the bamboo material for scaffolding, ladders, framework for houses, flooring, roofing, tent-poles, flag-poles, palanquin-poles, bed-posts, umbrella-handles, walking-sticks, water-pipes, weaving-implements, carts, litters, biers, baskets, buckets, pen-holders, toasting-forks, and tongs; for pencils, rulers, cages, pipes, pipe-stems, blowing-tubes, chairs, seats, screens, couches, tables, and cots. Rails, fences, light bridges, are all made of bamboo, and the finely-split stems are worked up into mats, ropes, and even sails for boats. The lining of the stems, after being made into a paste by bruising and steeping, affords an excellent paper. The young and tender shoots are eaten like asparagus, or made into soup with meat and spices, or pickled in vinegar for exportation to Europe. The manifold utility of the cocoa-nut palm for food and oil; for roofing, mats, baskets, and screens; for timber and cordage, cups and ladles, needs no further mention here. The valley of the Ganges and its tributary rivers produces wheat, barley, Indian corn or maize, and various millets in the more northern region, and rice as the staple crop and general food on the lower courses, while the rich territory, as a whole, affords sugar-cane and cotton; indigo and tobacco; saffron and other dyes; oil-seeds and flax; ginger, capsicum, red pepper, and other valuable spices; aloes, castor-oil, and many other medicines from shrubs, herbs, and roots; resins, varnishes, gums, perfumes, and india-rubber; melons, pumpkins, and yams; the opium-poppy and the mulberry; jute in the delta, shell-lac in the woods, splendid timber from many a kind of trees,—in short, nearly all that in the vegetable-world is, in that climate, of service to feed, clothe, shelter, and cure mankind.

Central and Southern India, with their triangular table-land forming the great peninsular region, are bounded and intersected by mountain-ranges, broken by river-valleys, and varied by peaks and spacious upland plains. The Vindhya Mountains, in their

popular name, form several separate systems of hills on the north, from 1500 to more than 4000 feet in height, with large masses of forests, peaks, and ridges, interspersed with tilled ground, high-lying table-lands of grassy growth, and charming river-courses. The Eastern Ghats (meaning "landing-stairs" upon a river, applied here to the passes of ascent from the coast-land to the inner plateau) have an average height of only 1500 feet. The Western Ghats run far closer to the shore, here and there rising from the ocean in grand precipice and mighty headland, with an average height of about 3000 feet, and peaks of near 5000 by the coast. The table-land inclosed by the Vindhyas and the Ghats varies in height from 1000 to 3000 feet above sea-level, with peaks and ranges ascending to above 4000, and the Nilgiris ("Blue Mountains", Neilgherry Hills) attaining above 7000 feet at Utakamand (Ootacamund), the summer-capital of Madras, and near 9000 feet in Dodabetta peak, in the southern angle where the Eastern and the Western Ghats unite. The mountains on the western side, in the Bombay Presidency or province, display at many points the spectacle of bare trap-rock rising in stately heights of natural fortress with a curving front, and guarded at the sides by round towers of stone unshaped, unpiled by human hands. Southwards, the passes from the sea ascend through regions of dense forest, and lower still a gap of 20 miles in breadth presents an easy access, only 1000 feet in height, to the interior of the country. The barrier of mountains on the west of the central plateau has no opening for rivers to the Indian Ocean between Cape Comorin and Surat, and the two great streams, the Narbada (Nerbudda) and Tapti, on the south of the Vindhyas, flow north of Surat into the Gulf of Cambay. The Eastern Ghats have broad and easy passages to and from the Bay of Bengal, and by these the rainfall of the table-land reaches the sea in the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Kistna (Krishna), and the Kaveri (Cauvery). Among the finest points of scenery in central and southern India are splendid falls on the Nerbudda between its source and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore); the passage of the same river, nine miles west of Jabalpur, through a narrow gorge between lofty rocks of white marble; and the grand cascades and rapids of the Cauvery at Sivasamudram, where the river splits into two streams as it passes through the Ghats.

Among the forest-trees of the Western Ghats are the famous

and most valuable teak, unrivalled for durability and strength in the construction of houses, bridges, ships, furniture, and railway-carriages; the *pun* tree of Tinnevelli and Travancore, with tall straight stems for masts and spars of large ships; and the black-wood, excellent for carved furniture. The smaller vegetation includes the plant supplying the capsules known as cardamoms, whose seeds become an aromatic pungent spice of great value as an export, largely used in medicine as a stimulant and cordial, and as a flavour in confectionery. The forests on the hills of Coimbatore contain the precious sandal-tree with its fragrant lasting odour, fatal to insects and so making the compact and fine-grained wood most suitable in India for desks and work-boxes and ornamental articles, with a special value for cabinets designed to keep specimens in natural history. The high-priced essential oil, used as a base for many perfumes, is distilled from the heartwood and the root. The whole growth is a government-monopoly, with exports yearly valued at about £80,000. In the hill-country of the south, as in the virgin forest-land of Coorg, the luxuriant tropical foliage, viewed from a height above, has a rare wild beauty in its vast waving ocean of green leaves, within whose shelter live the tiger and the elephant, the leopard and the bison, the tall powerful *sambhar* (sambur) deer, the jungle-sheep and many kinds of smaller game. The rainy season shows the tourist water dashing down from giddy heights in cataracts that, at one spot of the Western Ghats, descend with sound of thunder through more than 800 feet. The tillage of the valleys and of the high central plains, on ground that is yearly more and more won from the jungle, includes wheat, various kinds of smaller grain or millets, pulses, tobacco, sugar-cane and cotton. On the western coast, between the Ghats and the sea, the fruit-bearing palms, the rice, and the two or three successive crops yearly reaped, make the rich land rival the products even of the lower Ganges. Spices and dyes, and many drugs for medicine, are also raised in southern India, where the drought that sometimes comes upon the interior high levels is remedied by irrigation from huge lakes or tanks constructed by the damming up of valleys as receptacles of storage for the water falling in the season of an average monsoon.

The meteorological phenomena or climatic conditions of India are, as might be expected from the range of latitude and the diver-

sity of physical features, of very varied character. The monsoons of the Indian Ocean blow from the south-west between April and October, bringing the wet season of the year, which specially affects the western and the eastern coasts, and Bengal and Assam. In those regions the rainfall varies from an annual average of 67 inches in Bombay Presidency to 44 inches in Madras Presidency, and again from 67 inches in Bengal to the greatest rainfall in the world, of uncomputed average, in Assam, where 56 inches have been known to fall at one station in four days. The lowest recorded average in that country is over 52 inches, the highest 801. North-western India is comparatively dry, the rainfall varying from less than 6 inches as the lowest average in that part of the Punjab which is protected from the monsoon by the Sulaiman range to 71 inches at Simla, and from 25 inches at Muttra on the plains to 91 at Naini Tal in the hills; while in Sind the average nowhere exceeds 16 inches, and the Indian Desert, in the north-west of Rajputana, is almost rainless. Lying half within the tropics, India is of necessity a region of great heat. The average mean yearly temperature in the south and west and in Bengal varies from nearly 78 degrees in Calcutta to nearly 80 in Bombay and 82 in Madras. In the north-west, the dryness of the climate makes the summer heat, in May and June, sometimes attain 120 degrees in the shade, with an average shade-heat, in Sind and the Western Punjab, of nearly 110 degrees on the afternoons of July. Remembering that on an average the temperature falls about 3 degrees for each thousand feet of ascent, we find a cool and healthy climate, even in the hottest seasons, at the *sanitaria* or health-resorts established in the hilly districts as the one means of enabling Europeans to resist and remedy for many years the drain upon their strength due to their life and work on lower levels. At Darjiling, Simla, and Masuri (Mussoorie), in the Himalaya, the mean yearly temperatures are about 52, 55, and 59 degrees respectively; at Shillong, in Assam, the temperature rarely exceeds 80 degrees, and fires are needed from November until March; at Pachmarhi, in the Central Provinces, a convalescent depôt for European troops, the average warmth is about 10 degrees below that of the valley; at Ootacamund (Utakamand), in the Nilgiri Hills, a paradise of beauty, the chief sanitarium of the Madras Presidency, the mean temperature is 58 degrees, at 7230 feet above sea-level.

Closely connected with the climate of the country are the subjects of medicine and vital statistics. On the latter head, owing to the prejudice of natives against inquisition into details of their life, and the impolicy of all attempts at compulsory registration, the information is of a very imperfect character as to births, deaths, marriages, and sex and age. It is only in municipal districts that any fairly accurate account can be obtained. It seems that the average annual death-rate for the whole population was, in 1895, about 30 per thousand, according to the registered returns; the total deaths, in a population of about 198 millions (not the whole number, by many millions, in the land, but those subject to registration), amounting to nearly 6 millions. Of these deaths, 292,000 were due to cholera, 120,000 to small-pox, 4,110,000 to various fevers, 231,000 to bowel complaints, 87,000 to injuries, and nearly 1,100,000 to all other causes. During the decade 1881–91 the population grew by 10 millions. On the subject of medicine, we have already noticed the decline of Hindu art and science, in the cure of disease, with the causes thereof, and may here note the remarkable revival which followed the establishment of medical colleges in India by the Government about the middle of the nineteenth century. The educated Mohammedans were quick, the Brahmans and the cultured Hindus in general less ready, to take advantage of the new opening to a lucrative and honourable career. The Hindus, however, soon far more than made up for their earlier reluctance, and of late, the British medical colleges throughout India contained nearly 1700 Hindu students, 340 Mohammedans, 540 native Christians, Parsis, Eurasians, Europeans and others, while a recent year saw the publication of about 230 medical works in the native languages. The growth of the modern native study of medicine, beginning with vernacular schools in Calcutta and Bombay, founded between 1820 and 1830, is traced in the creation of the Medical Colleges of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay between 1835 and 1857, and the extension of the pursuit of this branch of scientific knowledge to Haidarabad (in the Deccan), Nagpur, Agra, Lahore, Balrampur (Oudh), Patna, Dacca, Poona, and Ahmadabad. Among the official and non-official agencies—Medical Boards, Medical Physical Societies, Medical Departments, Inspectors-General of Hospitals—charged with the care of the public health, we have the Sanitary Commissioner to the Government of India, Sanitary

Commissioners to the Local Governments, Health Officers to the municipal bodies, and special Committees or Commissions appointed from time to time to inquire into particular outbreaks and forms of disease.

The zoology of India comprises, as even persons less instructed than Macaulay's schoolboy know, some of the fiercest and most rapacious and destructive, one of the largest and most sagacious, some of the most useful and of the most graceful, and, among the birds, most gorgeous creatures that the world can show. A tragical contrast to the European fauna is presented in the fact that the Government, as protector of the peasant and his herds, is forced to wage a constant war, by a regular scale of payments for each slaughtered foe, against the wild beasts—tigers, leopards, wolves, hyænas, bears, and elephants—and, above all, against the deadly snakes that bring destruction on the life of men and cattle. Each year it is known that nearly 24,000 persons and about 70,000 cattle are slain by wild beasts and snakes. The total number of savage animals yearly destroyed, for which rewards are claimed according to the tariff, exceeds 13,500, while the number of snakes thus known to have been killed reaches more than half a million. Of the beasts, the tiger is the most destructive, but the snake-bite is by far the most fatal agency, since of late the number slain by animals was under 2500, while above 21,400 fell victims to the cobra and its poisonous congeners. Of the cattle, 64,500 were slain by wild beasts, and about 4000 by the bite of snakes provoked, no doubt, by accidental treading on the reptiles, a large cause of death to the bare-legged natives walking in a garden, field, or jungle. The lion is now nearly extinct, only a few strictly preserved specimens of the maneless variety being found in the hill-desert and forest-land of Kathiawar, the peninsula or western portion of Gujarat (Guzerat), in the Bombay Presidency. The tiger, rare now in many great districts, is still found from the malarious *tarai*, the moist and jungly tract that skirts the southern parts of the Himalayas, eastwards to the Sundarban swamps of the Gangetic delta, and southwards in the vast jungles of the central table-land. The deer and antelope are his chief food, where they are abundant; in lack of these, he preys upon domestic cattle. It is when the tiger has once tasted human flesh and become that dreadful epicure, a "man-eater", that his destructive work becomes

a terror to whole districts, causing villages to be deserted by the people and areas of tillage as large as Middlesex to be abandoned for the time to waste and weeds. There are true records of these animals, which are mostly old ones, disabled from pursuit of deer, having each killed more than a hundred persons, often rather from cruel rage than hunger. When such an animal has taken up his station near some lonely pathway, to spring on every passer-by, or, with his lair in the adjacent jungle, quarters himself upon a village, caring nothing for the sheep and cattle, but making prey of the inhabitants in turn, all egress from the place, nay, even from the mud-hut in which each family lives, becomes an enterprise hardly less dangerous than the leading of a forlorn hope. The only resource for people devoid of firearms or without the skill and courage to use them with effect against a monster so terrible, is to invoke the aid of some British "sahibs", officers who may be quartered in a military station, or of a bold tourist ranging the country in search of big game for his rifle. The foe then succumbs to attack from a party mounted on trained elephants, or, in some cases, to assailants on foot, men of the steadiest nerves, the surest eye, and the most finished weapons. The sportsman who will go face to face with the lord of the Indian jungle, and, while a shot that wounds but fails to kill is almost certain death to him who fires it, can slay his enemy in a single-handed battle, may retire upon his laurels as the winner of the blue riband of sport, and, listening unmoved to tales of daring, will feel assured that the reciter has never been so near to death as he has. Recently, nearly 800 persons and about 30,000 cattle were returned as the victims of tigers, and 36,000 rupees, or £3600, at the value of two shillings per rupee, were paid during one year to native professional huntsmen for the destruction of nearly 1300 tigers.

The leopard or panther is in all parts of India far more common than the larger beast of prey, and in a year about 200 persons and over 25,000 cattle are destroyed by their teeth and claws, while about the same sum in money as for tigers is paid for the slaying of over 3700 leopards. In the years 1890 and 1891, a district of Lower Bengal had a dreadful experience of destruction caused by the ferocity of that rarest of creatures, a man-eating leopard. The records of Oriental natural history and sport present no other instance of such a monster. Wolves and

hyænas are yearly the slayers of about 300 persons, mostly young children, and of nearly 7000 cattle, but the leopard has always been regarded as the chief enemy of goats, sheep, poultry, and the village dogs, rarely attacking human beings without provocation. Stealthy and silent in tread, and as crafty as a fox in his ways, he creeps by night into the hen-roosts, and destroys the whole stock in one raid. At the Indian hill-stations such as Simla and Mussoorie, the pet-dogs of ladies have been frequent victims, carried off before their mistresses' eyes. A new terror for villagers arose when in Rajshahi, a district of larger area than Norfolk, on the north bank of the Ganges in eastern Bengal, a leopard was reported to the police, in the month of July, 1890, as having killed and eaten a girl aged four and a boy of seven. This information was at first disbelieved, and the officials suspected that the children had been murdered, or that the authors of the tragedy were hyænas or wolves. In August, however, some natives came again to the police, declaring that the leopard had been seen to kill a boy aged eight, and that he had also carried off a baby six weeks old. The authorities still lacked faith in the story of a leopard with a taste for human flesh, but in December information came in that a boy of seven had been killed by a leopard described as a large heavy-shouldered beast, with rather a short tail, and averred by the villagers to be the same creature as the perpetrator of the other ravages. Terrible confirmation of the truth of these assertions came fast. In January, 1891, this monster carried off eight victims to devour at his leisure, and not one month of the year passed away without the destruction, by the same animal, in the same districts, of human beings varying in number from one to fourteen. A woman of thirty years, returning from market with her son of ten, was seized by the neck and instantly killed, when she rushed to the rescue of the lad on whom the leopard had sprung from the thicket. The boy's body was carried off into the jungle, in view of several of the woman's acquaintance who hurried in terror from the scene. A cow-herd, rising at early morning, found his mother's body lying in the courtyard, with her neck broken and blood sucked by the same ferocious beast. In January, 1892, fourteen persons were killed by the leopard, in February twenty-one, in March thirteen, and in the first week of April the total number of country-people slain by this one animal had reached

about 150. Many attempts had been made both by natives and Europeans to rid the district of this mortal plague, but all had ended in failure, due to the leopard's cunning care in hiding himself among the sugar-cane crop into which elephants may not be sent, or in the thick grass or the undergrowth of jungle impenetrable by human eyes. At last, on April 6th, 1892, nineteen elephants with mounted shooters were brought into action, and, the animal having taken refuge in a patch of high grass, he was forced out by an advance, shoulder to shoulder, of the whole body. Even then, he got away without being sighted by any of the shooting-party, but a poor villager, whose wife had been killed by the beast, chanced to see him climb into a tree, and there he was surrounded and, after many shots, was slain. The length was six feet six inches, and the head and shoulders were unusually large.

Jackals, chased like the fox by the packs of Anglo-Indian sportsmen; troops of wild dogs that hunt down deer and carnivorous animals; bears, feeding on honey, fruit, and ants; and the wild hog, well known from accounts of the exciting sport called "pig-sticking", are among the fierce animals of the Indian woods and hills and plains. Except in the north-west, the elephant is still found wild in many parts of the land, chiefly among the higher ridges and table-lands of the hilly regions. The forests of Coorg, Mysore, and Travancore are the only southern districts where the animal lives in a natural state, his chief haunts being in the hills on the north-east frontier from Burma to Assam, and along the *tarai* or jungly and swampy ground of the southern lower edge of the Himalayas. The method of capturing elephants in a kraal or *kheda*, a huge stockade, into which they are driven as a trap, starved into submission, and then tamed by well-broken fellows, is well known. In 1891, about 260 were thus taken in Assam, the strength and sagacity of the beast being still in considerable demand for purposes of draught, and custom and love of display causing high prices to be paid by native princes for good specimens of the towering creature so extensively used in the warfare and pageantry of the olden days. The animals are now a monopoly of the Government, and may only be shot in case of danger to human beings or destruction to crops, while "The Elephants Preservation Act" of 1879 protects them from slaughter, capture, and injury by heavy fine and imprisonment, except in the case of

persons having licenses on certain terms. Four varieties of the rhinoceros, two with a single and two with a double horn, are to be variously found in the Sundarbans, in Burma, and in the swamps of the Brahmaputra valley. The mild-natured game of sportsmen in India includes many kinds of deer and antelopes, and of wild sheep and goats in the Himalayas. The *gaur* or bison of the jungles on the hills, often over six feet in height to the top of the shoulder-hump, with huge head and short curved horns, is as dangerous and exciting to hunt as the tiger or the wild elephant. The buffalo is a great and intensely fierce creature, crowned with an enormous head; the nyl-ghau, nilgai, or "blue-ox", as its Persian name signifies, is held sacred by the Hindus from a fancied kinship to the bovine race, but is really a large kind of antelope. The huge rat called a bandicoot, sometimes two feet in length, and voles or field-mice, among countless specimens of their tribe, are respectively injurious to plants and fruit, and to the usual crops of the field.

The subject of birds is far too wide for any detailed account. A hint of the teeming winged life may be given in a scene that is often witnessed in a "compound" or bungalow-garden. A host of beautiful paroquets are resting on or flitting about the trees when a flapping of wings is heard, and vultures swoop down from the sky, each picking out his prey, and plucking the bright-hued feathers in preparing for a meal as they perch on some lofty branch, amid the flight of the other terror-stricken birds. There are many kinds of eagles, falcons, and hawks, and the sportsman has abundance of choice amid game-birds, living on land and water, of almost every kind known to the British Isles. The reptiles, besides the cobra, include poisonous salt-water snakes, and two kinds of crocodile that make the rivers and tanks dangerous to careless bathers. Numbers of scorpions, capable of inflicting very severe and troublesome wounds from the sting at the end of the tail, make themselves hateful by their habit of getting into houses, and secreting themselves under bedding, and in boots and other articles of wear. In the sea, the rivers, and the tanks, fish of many kinds supply abundant and wholesome food, the *mahsir* of the hill-streams, a kind of very large barbel, being specially dear to the sportsman from its spirit and strength. The *hilsa*, tasting and looking like a sort of fat white salmon, very largely captured in

the rivers of Lower Bengal, has a very rich and agreeable flavour. Of the countless varieties of insects, the bee, the silk-worm, and the lac-insect are the most useful to man. The butterflies are such for splendour as the tropics alone produce. Locusts are sometimes found to clear a district of its verdure. The white ant and the mosquito, and moths of destructive habits, are truly odious pests to all people in India. A quotation from a letter of Macaulay's, written in 1836, and dated from Calcutta, may serve to explain why Europeans flee from the life of the plains to the comparative repose, coolness, and comfort of the hills. "One execrable effect the climate produces. It destroys all the works of man with scarcely one exception. Steel rusts; razors lose their edge; thread decays; clothes fall to pieces; books moulder away, and drop out of their bindings; plaster cracks; timber rots; matting is in shreds. The sun, the steam of this vast alluvial tract, and the infinite armies of white ants, make such havoc with buildings that a house requires a complete repair every three years." The "white ants" are, in fact, not ants at all, but properly called Termites, feeding mostly on wood, entering the timbers of houses from below, eating out the interior into a hollow deceptive shell, and committing the same ravages on wooden furniture of every kind.

From the fauna of India we turn to some brief account of the mineral resources of the land. First in order of importance come salt, saltpetre, and coal. Salt is a substance of supreme necessity to the Indian peasant with his almost wholly vegetable diet, and, apart from imported supplies, is largely obtained by evaporation from sea-water along the whole line of coast, and from inland salt-lakes, such as the great Sambhar Lake in Jaipur and Rajputana. This sheet of water, which at its largest extent, after filling by the rains, measures about 20 miles in length from east to west, and from 3 to 10 miles in breadth, with a depth varying from 1 to 4 feet, is surrounded by rocks abounding in limestone and salt. From October to June the waters are constantly evaporating, so that the surface is reduced, in a very dry season, to about a mile in length by half a mile in breadth. The dry area is then covered with a white, crisp efflorescence of salt, and the valuable property is leased by the Indian Government from the native rulers, the Rajput princes of Jaipur and Jodhpur. The material supplies the markets of the Punjab, the North-west Provinces, and Central India with an annual average of

100,000 tons, affording work to above 400,000 labourers, and many thousands of carts and cattle. Salt, as a true mineral, is largely obtained in the quarrying of massive cliffs, unsurpassed for extent and for quality of salt, in the north-east of the Punjab, the chief mine being the "Lord Mayo", in the district of Jehlam (Jhelum). As for saltpetre, in its natural form, nearly the whole European supply for the making of gunpowder and for other purposes is derived, except for that obtained from the Chilian nitrate of soda, from efflorescent products of the soil in Northern Behar, and, to a smaller extent, from like gatherings after heavy rain in the North-west Provinces. The mining of coal has been for forty years an industry of steadily progressive value. The first English coal-mine, producing 50,000 tons in 1878, was opened in 1820 in the Raniganj Sub-division of the Bardwan District of Bengal. The coal-field has an area of about 500 square miles in a region now cleared of its former thick jungle, with seams varying in thickness from 70 to 120 feet. A great impulse to production was given by the commencement of the East Indian Railway in 1854, and the demand has continually grown with the increase of railway-works, river-steamers, and jute-mills at Calcutta. At Serampur, in the Hugli District of Bengal, we find a colliery about 220 yards deep, styled "Jubilee Pit Number Two", in British coal-country fashion, and ponies draw the tubs along the dark galleries under nude drivers yelling in various native tongues. At Makum, in Assam, a fine quality of coal for steaming and smithy purposes is worked, and the mines of Warora and Mohpani, in the Central Provinces, are also important. The annual output of the Indian collieries was recently 2,168,000 tons. The best quality, however, has less fixed carbon than British coal, and above three times the amount of ash, so that it will perform only from two-thirds to three-fourths of the duty done by its rival, which is imported almost at ballast-rates. As the total imports from Great Britain were only 784,000 tons in a recent year, it is clear that the demand for Indian coal is not likely to decrease.

Iron-ore of wonderful purity has been worked for many ages in every part of the country from the Himalayas to the extreme south, but the primitive methods of smelting, using a very large amount of charcoal, do not enable the product to compete in price with the British imports, and the only remunerative works, apart

from the small enterprises of many peasant-families of smelters, are those of the Bengal Government at Khendua, in the Manbhun District of the province. Silver is nowhere found. Gold is obtained in small quantities by washing in hill-streams, and of late years quartz-crushing, in reefs resembling those of Australia, has been tried in the Wainad (Wynaad) Sub-division of the Nilgiri District and in the Kolar District of Mysore. Several millions of British capital have there been sunk in providing plant of the most efficient kind, and good results may yet be attained. In 1890-91 only three of the many gold-mines opened in Southern India were yielding fairly, the total produce for 1891 being valued at under £450,000. Limestone for metalling the roads and for making mortar is almost everywhere found, and the hill-country abounds in building-stone of excellent quality. The pink marble of Rajputana was used for building the old architectural glories of Agra; the Deccan has trap-rock; the valleys of the Godavari and the Narbada are rich in sand-stone; and Southern India has valuable granite. The precious stones of India are, in native hoards, the inheritance of what was gathered in past ages, and, apart from the jade and ruby-mines of Upper Burma (not India at all, though made a part of the Indian Empire) and the pearls and other gems of Ceylon, nothing worthy of mention is now obtained. The famous diamonds of Golconda, a fortress and ruined city a few miles west of Haidarabad, in the Nizam's Dominions, and once the capital of a large and powerful kingdom, were not found there, but were the natural productions of another part of the territory, cut and polished by Golconda artisans.

CHAPTER VIII.

INDIA—*Continued.*

PEOPLES, RELIGIONS, AND OCCUPATIONS. COMMUNICATIONS, COMMERCE, TRADE.

Distribution of the population—The non-Aryan hill-tribes—The Santals—Kandhs—Bhils—Religious classification of the people—Rammohun Roy and Keshub Chunder Sen—The Parsis—Introduction of Christianity—The Roman Catholic Church—Protestant missions—Friedrich Schwarz—William Carey—Henry Martyn—Bishop Heber—Formation of dioceses—Labours of Dr. Duff—Progress of mission work—Occupations of the people—Agriculture—Means of irrigation—Products of the soil—Growth of rice, wheat, and millet—Oil-seeds—Vegetables—Fruits and spices—Cotton and jute—Indigo, opium, and tobacco—Coffee and tea—Cinchona—Production of silk—Sketch of village life—Preservation of the forests—Cotton, jute, and other manufactures—Native industries—Means of communication—Railway system of India—Great engineering works—The Bhor-Ghat Incline—Telegraphs—Statistics of export and import trade—The internal trade of India.

In 1891 the population of the whole of India, including Burma, exceeded 289 millions. One-third of the country, containing about 67 millions of people, is left in the hands of its hereditary rulers, so that British India, our Indian Empire strictly so called, under direct British administration, had then a population of about 222 millions. The diversity of races and languages has been already described in a previous section, and we have here to note first some facts concerning the distribution of the vast numbers of British subjects in the land, presenting results very widely different from those in our own country. Premising that the population has rapidly increased, from a total of under 200 millions for British India in 1881, and noting that the whole number of English, Scottish, and Irish residents, apart from the army, just exceeded 100,000 in 1891, we find that the average density, excluding Burma and Assam, is one of 280 persons to the square mile on an area of about 745,000 square miles. The proportion in France is but 186 (in 1891) to the square miles; in England and Wales it is now about 500. We must specially observe that India is not a region of large towns, but has an almost entirely rural population. In the year of the latest census, 1891, there were only about 200 towns with numbers exceeding 20,000, and of these only 60 towns had more than 50,000 people. Villages with less than 200 people probably exceed 300,000 in number, and we may estimate at over 200,000 more the villages

having between 200 and 500 inhabitants. The contrast between India and England (with Wales) is this—that over 53 per cent of the people in South Britain were in 1891 living in 182 towns exceeding 20,000 people, while in British India less than 5 per cent were so situated. Many of the so-called Indian towns are, moreover, nothing but groups of villages in the midst of which tilled land and pasturage are seen. There are many country districts that are overcrowded, with populations, as in many parts of Bengal, exceeding 1000 persons to the square mile of tillage, and there are also great tracts of fertile soil ready for cultivators, but it is very difficult to induce the Indian peasantry to migrate from their hereditary farms. A more equal distribution is all that is needed to enable the land in India, with average seasons, to well support a far larger population than the present. Before proceeding to classify the people according to religion, we may remind the reader that, in respect of race, about 19½ millions in British India are Brahmans and Rajputs, of comparatively pure Aryan blood, about 11 millions are "aboriginals" or "wild forest tribes", about 140 millions are of the mixed population known as Hindus, composed of Aryan and, more largely, of non-Aryan elements, and about 50 millions are Mohammedans descended from Central Asiatic invaders and variously mixed in race.

The non-Aryan hill-tribes deserve some special notice in connection with their recent history and with the British military service. The Santals, numbering about one million in 1872, live in jungle-villages or among the mountains, on the north-eastern edge of the central plateau, abutting on the Ganges in Lower Bengal. The social life is based upon a strong regard for the tie of kinship. The people of each hamlet, governed by a hereditary headman, with a deputy and a watchman or policeman, feast, hunt, and worship together, and the chief punishment for crime consists in expulsion from the village into the loneliness of the forest. The gods worshipped are those of the race, the tribe (each of the seven clans having its separate deity), and the family, while offerings are also made to many spirits of the river and the forest, and of ancestry, to demons of the well and the mountain, and other unseen beings. Towards the end of the eighteenth century the Santals who had lived by hunting and by regular plunder of the lowland-harvests, began to work on farms and to hold land in

connection with the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. They acquired confidence in British rule, and lived in peace and prosperity until they came within the grasp of Hindu money-lenders, who by 1850 had most of the men in the hamlets at their mercy, and were terrorizing the people by threats of imprisonment under British law. In 1848, the inhabitants of three villages had fled back to the jungle, and resumed the wild life of former days. At last, in 1855, a body of Santals, 30,000 in number, armed with their bows and arrows, started for Calcutta, about 150 miles distant, with the intention of seeking help in their trouble from the Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie. Such a movement was sure to end in mischief. Collisions with the police ended in rebellion, quickly suppressed with some serious loss of life. Relief was then afforded to their pecuniary needs, and a British officer, in charge of the Santal Parganas or District, arranged a form of government with the village headmen. The Kandhs (Kondhs or Khands, meaning "hill-men"), numbering about 100,000, live in the highlands at the east of the Central Provinces, and overlooking the Orissa delta and the northern part of the coast in the Madras Presidency. Their form of rule is patriarchal, and until they felt the pressure of the strong British hand, blood-feuds and human sacrifices prevailed. Between 1835 and 1845, under able and energetic British administrators, the Kandhs were brought to a peaceful and orderly life, dwelling on clearings of forest-land, furnishing their best men to the police, and growing yearly in prosperity under the new system. The predatory clans have now, in British India, been transformed into peaceful cultivators and loyal soldiers, displaying one of the most gratifying of the many beneficent results of our rule. Since the days of Clive and Coote, the fidelity, truthfulness, attachment to their social superiors, and the cheerful courage of the hill and forest tribes have been marked by the officers who, on many a field of battle, have led to victory soldiers thence recruited. As pioneers and as engineers these men have also done excellent service, and some of the most valiant and valued of our native regiments, as we have seen in the gallant little Gurkhas of Nipal (Nepaul), are furnished by these reclaimed dwellers in the uplands of India. The Bhils, numbering over half a million, inhabit the Vindhya, Satpura, and Satmala Hills lying in the west central and western region, along the forest-covered

banks of the Narbada and the Tapti. During the eighteenth century, treated as outlaws by the Mahrattas (Marathas), they became robbers of a desperate character, defeating large bodies of troops sent against them in their strongholds, and scourging the people of the lowlands by their raids. When the territory called Khandesh was occupied by the British in 1818, anarchy was at its height, and the roads were only kept passable, or the villages habitable, by the regular payment of black-mail to the Bhils. Expeditions sent against them were powerless through the deadly malaria. The great reformer of this state of things was the splendid soldier, Captain, afterwards Sir James. Outram, who went into the hills and made friendly advances to the chiefs, whom he won over by feasts and by his exploits in tiger-shooting. He then conceived the idea of enlisting them in favour of the cause of order, and enrolled a small body of men from among his companions in the chase. In 1827 he had 600 sturdy warriors in his corps, who fought bravely for the British Government against freebooters. At this time, the District treasuries are guarded by Bhils, who form the chief police of that region.

In a religious classification, British India contains about 156 millions of Hindus and Brahmos, 50 millions of Mohammedans, over 7 million Buddhists (almost entirely in Burma), about 1½ million Christians, 6 millions of people holding "animistic" or tribal nature-worship faiths, 1½ million Sikhs, half a million Jains, about 80,000 Parsis, and 15,000 Jews. The Brahmos, very few in numbers, form a community termed the Brahmo-Somaj, or "Church of the one God", "Theistic Church", developing a new religion among Hindus educated in the western learning. The new faith had its rise with a Brahman of high birth, named Rammohun Roy, who, having come to doubt the ancestral beliefs, formed a creed like the Unitarianism of this country, accepting the morality preached by Christ, but rejecting His deity and miracles. In 1831 he visited England, where he was warmly welcomed on account of his high character, his zeal against the idolatry of most of his countrymen, and his services in promoting the abolition of suttee. He died at Bristol in 1833, and his work was continued by his Indian followers. The spread of British education greatly aided the movement, and a new leader arose in Keshub Chunder Sen, who joined the new church in 1858, and visited Europe in

1870. The fundamental principles of the Brahmo-Somaj are the recognition and worship of one Supreme God, the rejection of all special revelation, with reliance upon nature and intuition alone for religious knowledge, the ignoring of caste, of sacred books or places, and of all idolatrous rites, with esteem for what is good in all religions. The members of the association, which has above a hundred branches in India, are reformers of marriage-customs and promoters of female education, and have been represented, since 1880, by the *Theistic Quarterly Review*. The Sikhs, the Jains, the Hindus, and the Buddhists have been already dealt with, and the Mohammedans need no further mention.

The Parsis have an importance wholly independent of their scanty number. Their name means "people of Pars or Fars", *i.e.* ancient Persia, and they are a remnant of the followers of the old Persian religion of Zoroaster (Zarathustra or Zerdusht), holding the sun and fire in reverence as the emblems of purity and light, and so of divinity. The ethical rules aim at purity in thought, word, and deed; the cleansing of physical and moral foulness is effected by washings with holy water or with earth, by prayers and by the recitation of passages of the sacred writings in the language of their ritual, the ancient, holy Zend; and by flagellation or by gifts to the priest. Marriage is permitted only within the limits of the sect. The dead, as is well known, are exposed on the iron grating of the Dakhmas or Towers of Silence, to the action of the elements and of birds of prey, until the bones fall through into a pit beneath, whence they are removed to a subterranean cavern. The Parsis form, as merchants and landed proprietors, one of the most respectable and thriving sections of the community, living chiefly at Bombay, Surat, and Ahmadabad in the west, and at Calcutta and Madras. They are conspicuous for integrity, industry, skill in trade, wealth, general intelligence, benevolence, and a splendid mode of life. Their eagerness to profit by western civilization is seen in the presence and success of many of their students at the London University examinations, and at other British resorts of learning. About two-thirds of the whole number, or some 50,000 Parsis, reside in Bombay, where they are conspicuous, in person, for their tall and stalwart figures, and their picturesque dress of long full white cotton trousers and shirts, with the high black tiara on the head, and, as citizens, for

their noble public spirit in the expenditure of their wealth. Many of the richest merchants of Bombay are Parsis, and other members of their community are very successful as ship-builders, engineers, hotel-keepers, and artisans. It is one of the sights of Bombay to behold, on the sea-strand, at rise and set of sun, many pious worshippers of fire standing erect, or kneeling on rugs, in adoration of the coming or departing orb of day.

Christianity, apart from legends concerning the preaching of the doubting apostle, Saint Thomas, arrived on the Malabar coast, in the person of converted Jews on board of the regular Roman merchant-fleet from the Red Sea, before the close of the second century. For a thousand years, from the fifth to the fifteenth century, the Nestorian doctrine of the Syrian church was the main representative of the Christian faith in that part of Southern India, and this was followed by the Catholic form introduced by the Portuguese early in the sixteenth century. In 1560, the Inquisition was established at Goa, and its warfare with heretics and pagans continued till its abolition in 1812. The Syrian Catholics in that region, retaining in their services the Syrian language and part of the old ritual, and acknowledging the Papal supremacy, still number over 220,000. The work of Portuguese missionaries among the heathen, including that of the famous St. Francis Xavier, who arrived in 1542, promised at one time the establishment of the faith through a large part of India. It left behind it, in the Portuguese territory as now held, the spectacle of the only Christian State-polity in the whole country, with a territory divided into parishes provided with churches and with other ecclesiastical features of a Christian land. The Jesuit missionaries, after the downfall of Portuguese political dominion, effected by the Dutch, in 1663, by the capture of Cochin, had much success. The suppression of the Order in Portugal, in 1759, deprived the Indian Jesuit missions both of priests and of funds, and the work of conversion became very feeble. Since the re-establishment of the Society in 1814 much progress has been made, and the Roman Catholics of all India, with Burma, now exceed 1½ millions. Over two-thirds of the priests are natives, and there have also been several Brahman bishops. The missions include secular and regular clergy from many of the European countries, including Great Britain, Germany, and Holland. Since 1886, there has been

PARSIS WORSHIPPING THE RISING SUN ON THE BEACH AT BOMBAY.

Among the numerous religious sects in India are the Parsis, a remnant oi the old Persian religion of Zoroaster. They worship one Supreme Being who is called Ormuzd, and is the source of all light and goodness; he is ever in conflict with Ahriman, the source of darkness and evil. The Parsis are said to be worshippers of fire; they themselves maintain that they do not worship that element, but only find in it an image and emblem of God's purity. That, indeed, is the basis of their religion—purity in thought, word, and deed. Their ritual prescribes various washings, both with water and with earth; while even their dead are exposed to the birds of prey on the Towers of Silence, in the interests of purity. Great numbers of the Parsis live in Bombay, and it is one of the most interesting sights of the city to watch these pious people kneeling on the beach in adoration at sunrise or sunset.

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a regular ecclesiastical constitution of sixteen dioceses, grouped into six provinces, with two separate vicariates and three prefectures. Catholics are most numerous in the native states of Travancore and Cochin. The number of converts is steadily increasing, having more than doubled since 1851, and there is a good supply of colleges and schools.

The first Protestant missions in India were established by Danish Lutherans in 1706, at Tranquebar, in Tanjore. The translation of the Bible into Tamil and Hindustani was effected; but progress was slow, and for more than a century, from 1719 till 1824, the Lutheran missionaries were mainly supported by our Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel next took charge of the work. The famous Friedrich Schwarz, born in Brandenburg in 1726, was appointed and paid by the S.P.C.K., sailing for India in 1749. His character was a combination of piety and good sense, and he laboured with great success in Tranquebar, Trichinopoli, and Tanjore until his death in 1798. Hyder Ali of Mysore formed a high estimation of the German evangelist, and in arranging terms of peace with the Government of Madras he declined to receive and trust any other negotiator. He was tutor and guardian to the young son of the Rajah of Tanjore, and the lad became one of the most accomplished of native rulers. It was Schwarz who founded the Tinnevelli Protestant missions, numbering 3000 souls in 1816. Four years later, two Lutheran ministers were sent out by the Church Missionary Society, and in 1835 there were over 11,000 converts. In 1881, there were over 81,000, the work having flourished under the control of Bishops Sargent and Caldwell, assistants to the Bishop of Madras. Dr. Caldwell is the eminent Orientalist who wrote the *Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*. The work in Tinnevelli is remarkable for the progress made in the way of self-supporting churches. In 1884, there were only five European and Eurasian missionaries, along with sixty-six native clergymen, some of whom were maintained by their people. The Baptist missions of Serampur were established in 1799 by the famous William Carey, born in Northamptonshire in 1761, who passed through the grades of shoemaker's apprentice and Baptist preacher to the position of the editor of grammars and dictionaries in Bengali, Mahratta, Sanskrit, and other languages, in a sphere of

labour from which, before his death in 1834, hundreds of thousands of Bibles, or parts thereof, and tracts and other religious works, had been issued in about forty Oriental tongues. Serampur was a Danish possession until 1845, when it was purchased by the Company, and it was chosen by Carey as the seat of his efforts on account of the hostility then displayed by the Calcutta Government towards the work of missions. Marshman and Ward were other eminent Baptist labourers in this field, which was entered in 1798 by the London Missionary Society.

In 1813, the new Charter removed the Company's opposition to evangelizing efforts in India, and the Anglican Church, with a Bishop at Calcutta, and three archdeaconries, one in each Presidency, became directly connected with missions. Among the East India Company's chaplains, Henry Martyn, Senior Wrangler and first Smith's Prizeman at Cambridge in 1801, was conspicuous for the zeal and ability of his labours in Bengal, where he translated the whole New Testament into Hindustani, Hindi, and Persian, the Prayer-book into Hindustani, and the Psalms into Persian, falling a victim to his toil in 1811. Dr. Middleton arrived in Calcutta as the first Bishop in 1814, succeeded, nine years later, by the eminent Reginald Heber, born in Cheshire in 1783, and a student of Brasenose College, Oxford, where he wrote the prize-poem, *Palestine*, which is almost the only composition of its class that has become a part of our literature. His *Hymns* include the well-known "From Greenland's Icy Mountains", and "Lo, He comes in clouds descending". His death from apoplexy in 1826, at Trichinopoli, was a grievous loss to the world of Christian character and ability. The Church Missionary Society and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel have been the chief agencies of the Anglican Church in Indian missions, her main success being obtained, as we have seen, in Southern India. In 1835, the See of Madras, and in 1837, the See of Bombay, were established, and separate dioceses at Lahore and Rangoon (Burma) were founded in 1877. In 1879, a missionary bishopric of Travancore and Cochin was founded, and two other bishoprics have followed, that of Chutia-Nagpur (Bengal) in 1890, and of Lucknow in 1892. The ecclesiastical staff maintained by the Indian Government for the spiritual needs of its European soldiers and officials consists of about 160 Anglican, and 13 Presbyterian chaplains. The Bishops

of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay are entirely paid by the Government; those of Lahore, Rangoon, and Lucknow are maintained by the income of voluntary endowments supplemented by a Government salary; the See of Chutia-Nagpur is endowed by subscriptions; the Bishop of Travancore is paid by the Church Missionary Society. The Government-staff of clergy is confined to the official and military centres, and the wants of Europeans at smaller stations are chiefly supplied by ministers sent out by the Additional Clergy Society and the Anglo-Indian Evangelization Society, a Nonconformist body. Among able and zealous missionaries of the Church of Scotland we find Alexander Duff, born in 1806 near Pitlochry, in Perthshire. A pupil of Chalmers at St. Andrews, he reached Calcutta in May, 1830, after two shipwrecks on his outward voyage, and struck out a new path in freely opening up European science and learning to the natives of India, along with his religious doctrine. He won the favour of the Indian Government, and displayed his marvellous energy in re-founding his college in India after the formation of the Free Church of Scotland, to which he adhered, had removed his original institution from under his control. He aided in establishing the University of Calcutta, and raised the sum of £10,000 for the endowment of a missionary-chair in the New College, Edinburgh. The sum of £11,000, presented to him as a token of esteem, was devoted by Duff as a fund for the support of invalided missionaries. John Wilson, born a farmer's son near Lauder in Berwickshire, in 1804, was another eminent Scottish missionary, labouring at Bombay from 1828, after 1843 in connection with the Free Church, until his death in 1875. He had a wonderful knowledge of Indian peoples, languages, literature, history, faiths, customs, and ideas, combined with great energy, sympathy, and wisdom. He became a Fellow of the Royal Society, vice-chancellor of the Bombay University, and president of the Bombay branch of the Asiatic Society. Many other missionary societies, belonging to the Wesleyans, Presbyterians of England and Ireland, and other bodies, have been at work in India, where the number of native Protestant Christians increased more than sevenfold between 1851 and 1890, from 91,000 to 648,000, a result largely due to the increased employment of natives in converting their brethren. The native ordained pastors grew, during the above period, from 21 to 797, and, of lay-preachers, from 493 to

3491. During the same forty years, the total number of pupils, male and female, in Protestant mission-schools increased from 64,000 to nearly 300,000, with a rapid rise in the standard of instruction, enabling the scholars to compete successfully with the Government colleges at the University examinations. The education of females has been a special object of attention among the missionary bodies, the Protestant day-schools for girls having risen from 285 in 1851 to 1507 in 1890, with pupils exceeding 108,000.

In considering the occupations of the people of India, we must first apprehend that 70 per cent of the whole number are dependent upon the land for their livelihood, in the tillage of the soil or in the pasturing of cattle. An infinite variety of detail is found in the methods applied to the deltaic swamps of Bengal and Burma, the dry uplands of the Karnatik, the "black-soil" plains of the Deccan, the strong clays of the Punjab, and the desert sand of Rajputana and Sind. The light plough of the Indian peasant, which he carries on his shoulders to the field, only scratches the surface of the soil, but shallow furrows are made again and again until by repeated toil the whole of the earth is reduced to powder and made easily accessible to moisture and heat. The lack of ordinary manures is supplied, in the river valleys, by the rich silt deposited, as in Egypt, by the annual flooding that follows the tropical rains, and water for the growth of crops is variously obtained, in Sind from channels for drawing off water from the Indus, from wells in the Deccan and the Punjab, from tanks (natural and artificial lakes) in the Karnatik, and by terraces cut on the hillside in every suitable locality to catch the streams pouring down from the higher ground. Irrigation by canals made in former days, or repaired or constructed anew under British rule, furnishes vast areas with the needful moisture in regions lacking rain and the aid of tanks and wells. This grand means of averting famine supplies two millions of acres in Sind, over 780,000 acres in the Bombay Presidency, nearly 3½ millions of acres in the Punjab, about 1¾ millions of acres in the North-Western Provinces, 1 million acres in Lower Bengal, and about 1½ millions of acres in the Madras Presidency. Every effort is made both by the Government and by the cultivators to guard against the disastrous effects both of floods and of drought. The valleys of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, and the deltaic regions of the eastern coast, are protected by embank-

ments against an undue overflow from the rivers. In Southern India, where the inland plateau has an irregular supply of moisture from the rainfall, and engineering-work is limited not merely by the enormous expenditure required, but by the nature of the ground in its confusion of hills and valleys and its unmanageable levels, the tillers of the soil are largely dependent upon tanks excavated, or adapted from the natural formation of the ground, in the hill-country, and upon water obtained from the rivers by means of anicuts or dams across them, causing an artificial flood for diversion to the fields. Much service was rendered to the Indian peasantry, in connection with irrigation, under the rule of Lord Mayo, who executed or devised new systems of canals in the territory of the upper Ganges, the Jumna, and the Godavari, and in Behar and Orissa, and provided for interest on the cost of construction in a liberal arrangement for canal-cess, which compelled the husbandman to pay his water-rate only after proof either of benefit derived from irrigation, or of wilful neglect, during five years, to use the water brought by the canals close to his plot of ground. The Government thus levied its canal-rate, practically, only in return for actual value received, the estimate of liability requiring a demonstration that the cultivator's net profits, after paying the water-rate, had been or would have been increased by use of the canal. Recently, in the whole of India, excluding Lower Burma and Assam, nearly 29 millions of acres or about one-fifth of the whole area under cultivation, were irrigated from the various sources above described, the amount expended in eight consecutive years being nearly 20 millions of tens of rupees, chargeable to revenue, or about 12 millions of pounds sterling, at the depreciated value of 1*s.* 2½*d.* per rupee. The Agricultural Department of our Indian Government strives to foster and improve the people's most important industry by collecting and furnishing early information concerning the crops in every province, by directing experimental farms, introducing new implements and objects of tillage, founding and conducting schools for teaching agricultural chemistry, and despatching native students to Europe for study of the whole subject. Much attention is also paid to the improvement of breeds of horned cattle and sheep, and of every class of draught-animals and beasts of burden.

As regards the various products of the soil, we find that about

one-third of the population of all India, or 93 millions, may be described as living upon rice, grown chiefly in the deltas of the great rivers, and on land along the sea-coasts; in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, that grain is grown only on the naturally moist ground or by means of irrigation. In the centre of the country, and in the Punjab, only small areas are under this wet-loving plant, which needs about 35 inches of water for its perfect growth. It is of late years only that the growth of wheat in India has, by exportation to Great Britain, attracted much attention in this country. The great districts for this familiar European grain are in the north, and many readers will be surprised to learn that the total wheat-area, exceeding 20 millions of acres in one year, equals the whole amount of land devoted to the crop in the United States. The Punjab alone, where the wheat-area is above one-third of the whole acreage given to food-grains, has more than 6 millions of acres, above double the amount of land given to wheat in Great Britain. In the Central Provinces, wheat covers 31 per cent of the area used for growing grain. The removal, in 1873, of the Indian export-duty on wheat brought a new supply of the cereal, hardly inferior in quality to the best Californian and Australian grain, into the British market, the average annual export from India to Europe over a series of recent years having reached nearly 17½ million cwts. The most extensive crop of India as a whole, in the shape of food-grain, is found in varieties of millet, a very nutritious small grain locally called, in its several forms, and in several dialects, *joar*, *cholam*, *ragi*, *bajra*, *kambu*, &c. In the Madras Presidency nearly 12 million acres, or above half the total cultivated area, were recently under this crop; in Bombay and Sind, 65 per cent of the total food-acreage. A little Indian corn or maize, a large amount of barley, and many kinds of pulse, locally called *gram*, *dal*, &c., are also raised.

The native use of oil for lamps, for personal anointing, and for food is very large, and we find a corresponding growth, in all parts of India, of the oil-seeds which are also largely exported to Europe. Rape-seed, linseed, sesamum, and castor-oil seed are the chief products of this class, nearly 7 millions of acres being given to their growth, with a yearly export recently of over 24 million cwts., worth over 16¾ millions sterling. Many kinds of

excellent vegetables, especially of the cucumber and melon tribe, and including, of late years, turnips, cabbages, and potatoes, are grown in all parts for household use and for sale in the large towns. The chief fruits—mangoes, oranges, pomegranates, guavas, shaddocks, figs, limes, citrons, tamarinds, and others, including the pine-apple—are generally known, with the spices turmeric, chillies, ginger, coriander, aniseed, pepper, and cardamoms. The cocoa-nut palm and date-palms have been already named. Sugar-cane, of which the finest is grown in the North-Western Provinces, and the date-palm, in one variety, furnish saccharine matter for home-consumption and about 1½ million cwts. for yearly export, with the value of £1,200,000.

The foreign trade in cotton, grown for ages in sufficiency for native requirements, dates mainly from the Lancashire famine of 1862 caused by the American Civil War, and already described in these pages. Between 1860 and 1866 the value of exports in raw cotton rose from about 2 millions sterling to 25 millions, falling greatly again after the restoration of peace in America until they were under 5 millions in 1879, and rising again of late years to over 13¼ millions. The material is inferior, in length of staple and fineness of quality for yarn, to the best American products, but has a secure hold of the market for all but the highest class of goods. The plains of Gujarat and Kathiawar, in the west; the Deccan highlands, and the valleys of Berar and the Central Provinces are the principal scenes of cotton-growth. There are at present about 175 mills for ginning, cleaning, and pressing the cotton in the Bombay Presidency, with work done by steam-power, and forming a great branch of native industry. The second place among Indian fibre-crops is taken by the jute which is grown in the north and east of Bengal. The vast demand of recent years, mentioned in our account of industries at Dundee, has done wonders for the prosperity of the growers in India. The exports in one recent year reached 8,690,000 cwts., worth over 8½ millions sterling, besides jute manufactures to the value of £2,441,000.

We pass on to the famous plant producing the blue dye called indigo. Within the last half-century the British capitalist has abandoned its growth in Lower Bengal; Behar, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and Madras are now the chief regions

for the crop, with an average annual export of 144,000 cwts., valued at about £2,400,000. The dyeing material is obtained by steeping the leaves in a large vat until fermentation ensues; boiling the sediment deposited in a second vat, straining it, and making it up into cakes. The drug concerning which so brisk a wordy warfare has long been waged in Great Britain and India, to say nothing of the armed hostilities in China already described, is chiefly grown and manufactured in the mid-Ganges valley, near Benares and Patna, and in a portion of Central India, including the states of Indore and Bhopal. There is produced the opium of Indian trade, the cultivation being a Government monopoly in Bengal, while the duty on that grown in the Native states is levied on passage through Bombay territory to the ports of shipment. In Rajputana, and in some small districts of the Central Provinces and the Punjab, opium is produced for local use, the cultivation of the poppy being prohibited through all the rest of British India. In a recent year about 98,000 cwts. of opium were exported, to the value of over 8 millions sterling, with a nett profit to the Government amounting to about 3 millions. The cultivation of the poppy and the preparation of the juice are elaborate, tedious, and expensive operations, and, according to Indian custom, an advance of money is made to the cultivator before preparing his ground, to be repaid when he delivers his crop, for examination and weighing, to the Government agents. The opium-grower undertakes yearly to sow a certain area with poppy, with the option of declining to sow at all, and, after engagement, he is bound to transfer the whole produce to the Government, with payment at a fixed rate, dependent on quality. Tobacco is grown everywhere for native consumption. The Portuguese introduced it in the early years of the reign of the British Solomon who so strongly denounced the weed. The only Indian product in this way that is much relished by European smokers is the "Trichinopoli cheroot" of the Madura and Coimbatore Districts in Madras.

Since 1830, when a coffee-garden was first established by an English planter, the cultivation of the shrub, carried on by natives since the end of the eighteenth century with plants introduced from Arabia, has spread largely in Southern India. The whole area thus occupied in 1893–94 was about 270,000 acres, producing coffee to the annual value of over 2 millions sterling. In Coorg,

nearly half of the whole cultivated area is devoted to the coffee-plant, best grown at about 3000 feet above sea-level, in a warm, moist situation, on soil composed of decayed vegetable matter such as is furnished in forest-clearings. Indian tea, on a large scale, is a product of recent years, now attracting more European capital than indigo, and a very successful rival of the Chinese article. In 1826, the tea-plant, a species of camellia, was found to be growing wild in Assam, after our conquest of the territory from Burma. In 1834, when Lord William Bentinck was in power, the Indian government took up the subject of tea-cultivation. Persons skilled in the tillage, and in the preparation of the leaf for market, were procured from China, and, on the importation of plants from that country, it was found that the best-flavoured tea was produced by a cross between the Chinese variety and the native plant of Assam. In 1838, the first chests of Assam tea arrived in England, and two years later the Assam Tea Company was in the field. Abundance of capital was soon forthcoming, and, after preliminary failures due to ignorance concerning soil and methods of preparation, the new industry attained a great and permanent success. The plant is grown very largely on the north-eastern hills in Assam, and in the District of Darjiling, between Nipal and Bhutan. The cultivation has of late years spread to the Nilgiri Hills, to southern districts of Bengal, and to the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces. In recent years statistics show that the total export of India-grown tea has reached nearly 130 millions of pounds weight, with a value of nearly 7 millions sterling, the bulk being sent to and consumed in the British Isles. The cultivation in India of the cinchona-tree, with the bark that yields the invaluable alkaloid called quinine, was due to the untiring energy of Sir Clements Markham, K.C.B., the very able geographer, explorer, and writer. It was he who, in 1860, brought seedlings from Peru to India, and for the first time reared artificially the tree which now supplies a cheap remedy against fevers to the teeming people of the plains, and exports to Europe enough bark to pay interest on the capital invested. The Government centre of cultivation is on the Nilgiri Hills, and there are large and valuable private estates. The tillage has spread into various districts of Southern India, and the Government have now a great and successful plantation at Darjiling, in northern Bengal. Recently, the Government had nearly

6 millions of trees at their two centres in the Nilgiris and in the Darjiling District, the quinine produced not being made an object of profit, but mainly devoted to the good of the people. The drug manufactured at the public factory is sold at one rupee per ounce, a price of which the significance can only be understood by those who regard the prevalence of fevers in India and the efficacy of the remedy thus placed within the reach of the poorest peasants. Above 12,000 acres of trees, in the Madras Presidency and Coorg, are in private hands, and of late nearly 3 million lbs. of bark were exported, to the value of about £80,000.

The production of silk is dependent on the mulberry-tillage, largely conducted in Bengal. The silk-trade is not an increasing industry. The Company, in the latter half of the eighteenth century and up to 1833, did much to foster sericulture, and in the above year about one million lbs. was the (average) annual export from Calcutta. The growth of the mulberry is now chiefly carried on, by native enterprise, in Lower Bengal, where recently nearly 16,000 persons, turning out 554,000 lbs. of silk, were thus employed. The silk is partly used on native looms, and partly spun and made into cloth at steam-factories in Bombay. The raw silk, exported to France, the British Isles, and Italy, in this order of amounts, is annually worth about £700,000. "Wild silk", called *tasar* or *tusser*, is obtained from the cocoons of worms feeding on various jungle-trees, the thread spun therefrom being mainly used on native looms.

The mode of life with the vast majority of the Indian population, those engaged in agricultural pursuits, is well described in a cheap and accessible book, Mr. Ramakrishna's *Life in an Indian Village*. The scene is laid in a typical hamlet of from fifty to sixty houses, representing over fifty thousand such collections of native abodes scattered over the Madras Presidency. The place consists of a cluster of trees, including the tamarind, mango, cocoa-nut palm, and plantain; a group of dwellings, some thatched, and some tiled; a small temple in the centre, devoted to a local goddess, with a priest, and various servants of the shrine, including a couple of dancing-girls; the whole being surrounded by about 500 acres of green fields, and having a large "tank" capable of watering the land for six months. The community is governed by its "headman", called *Munsiff* in the south, and *Potail* in many

other regions. He is a petty local magistrate, who settles disputes, directs the rural police, and collects the taxes. The accountant and notary (*Kurnam* or *Patwari*) keeps a register of the produce and the names of the little land-owners or tenant-farmers, and draws up deeds of sale and transfer. Then come the money-lender and banker, the schoolmaster, the physician, the carpenter, the blacksmith, shepherd, washerman, potter, barber, tattooer, tanner, and a little body of pariahs, Hindus of the lowest grade, living in their own quarter of the hamlet, and performing various menial services. The work of this little village-world goes on from year to year with the regularity of a machine, according to the traditions of past ages, little influenced by a foreign rule and a foreign civilization. The officials and the village artisans are paid in grain at the threshing-floor in harvest-time. The amusements consist in the gossip of the women when they meet to draw water at the village-well or at the tank; in the songs of the bard, and in the performances of wandering companies of jugglers, acrobats, snake-charmers, and animal-tamers. There are village dramas, and village feasts, and the schoolmaster, well-read in the thousands of stanzas of the *Maha Bharata* in the Tamil version, gives recitations or "preachings", on the summer nights of the season of leisure, to open-air gatherings around his hut. The most notable feature of the Hindu life in such communities is the extreme importance attached to the religion which affects the thought and action of every day and hour, in the pious native's anxiety to get rid of the need for future births after death in this world, and to attain eternal beatitude. The village sprang up around the temple, and the shrine of the local deity for ever remains the centre of regard with those who most eagerly of all things wish to acquire religious merit. The grand benefit derived from British rule by these peaceful and harmless villagers, living in scores of millions under our sway, is their freedom from plunder by robbers of every class. Other advantages brought by our administration are found in matters already mentioned with regard to irrigation, the relief of famine, and the supply of the one great medicine to fight the fever which is the peasant's deadliest foe.

In the Sind valley of the Indus, and in the sandy districts of the western Punjab, camels are used for agricultural labour; in every other part of India, horned cattle, including many varieties

of the humped breed, are solely employed for drawing the plough. British encouragement, by means of cattle-shows and prizes, has greatly improved the native breeds in parts of the Madras Presidency. The Central Provinces have a high-class breed of trotting bullocks, much valued for the wheeled carriages which are still largely used by the affluent in Indian travel. Buffaloes are the animals chiefly employed for draught in the deltaic regions, and the milk of their cows is the best for producing the ghee (*ghi*) or clarified butter so largely used by the natives with their rice and other grains. The Punjab is the chief source of horse-supplies for the native cavalry, and much progress has been lately made, in the same Province, in the breeding of mules for military use.

Since the middle of the nineteenth century, the British Government has paid attention to the important subject of repairing the waste of valuable forests caused by timber-cutters and charcoal-burners, and by the tillage called "nomadic cultivation", in which the hill-people clear the ground of trees by burning, and having neither oxen nor ploughs, exhaust the soil in a quick succession of crops raised by the hoe, and then move on to a fresh patch of jungle-ground. In 1864, an Inspector-General of Forests was appointed: three years later, candidates for employment in the Indian Forest Department were sent for training to the Forest-schools of Germany and France, and in 1885 a special department for this study was opened at the Royal Engineering College at Cooper's Hill, near Windsor. The destruction of the timber, now greatly needed for railway-sleepers and engine-fuel, has been arrested; replanting is progressing, and a regular system of conservation is in force. The chief trees and their value have been already noticed; the area of reserved forests now exceeds 13 millions of acres, bringing an annual nett-revenue (year 1890-91) of about £400,000.

The historical manufactures of India, still pursued on no mean scale, were once unrivalled in their display of manual dexterity and artistic taste. Long ages before cotton-weaving was known in England, the native looms were producing the cloth which has ever been, for both sexes, the chief material of Indian clothing. Calicut, on the Malabar coast, gave us the word "calico", and Dacca, in eastern Bengal, became renowned in the eighteenth century for the exquisite muslins compared to "woven air". The

competition of steam-power has overwhelmed the native hand-work in the matter of cheapness, and the fabrication of cotton goods by the old loom has become only a village industry, still important for the durability of its products, still supplying more than half the clothing of the Indian peoples. No diminution of taste and skill has occurred, and Indian cottons are yet unsurpassed for graceful design, delicacy of texture, and the purity and fastness of the hues imparted by the dye-vat. Of late years, however, British and native capital has summoned steam to its aid, and the cotton-mills of Bombay are yearly producing larger quantities of cloth. The first use of steam-machinery at Bombay for cotton manufacture took place in 1854, and within 25 years the erection of factories spread thence to Gujarat (Guzerat), Calcutta, Madras, Cawnpur, and Central India, the chief centre always being, as now, at Bombay. Recently there were, in all India, some 127 cotton-mills, with nearly 25,000 looms, 3,270,000 spindles, and about 118,000 persons, men, women, and children, employed thereon, the capital invested in these concerns certainly exceeding 7 millions sterling. The Bombay Presidency contained 90 of these factories, of which 65 were in the city and island of Bombay, with chimney-stalks emitting noisome smoke in the fashion of a Lancashire town. The competition with the British maker is greatly favoured by the raw material and the market being close at hand, and by the cheapness of labour not subject to strikes. On the other hand, the Indian manufacturer is hampered by the triple cost, as compared with Great Britain, of erecting mills and stocking them with the requisite plant; by the higher interest of money, the cost of fuel and other imported stores, and by the short staple of the native cotton. Manchester and her fellow-towns are thus enabled to hold their own in the higher qualities of yarn and cloth. The factory-workers are paid by the piece, boys and women being able to earn from 7 to 10 rupees (8*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*) per month, while a skilled man's wages, for the same period, vary from 30 to 65 rupees (36*s.* to nearly £4). A family of several members will receive as much as 100 rupees (£6) per month, which is a kind of opulence for the natives of India. The daily work-hours are twelve, from six to six, with an hour off for mid-day meal and a smoke. A Factory Act protects youth from excessive labour and from mischiefs incidental to the work. The yarn and twist are chiefly sent to China and

Japan, the calico to Arabia and south-east Africa. The local demand is a main support of the trade, and the Indian twist and yarn of the coarse and the medium qualities are superseding those of British production. About half a dozen woollen mills, producing blankets and cloth for coarse greatcoats and other garments, have lately arisen in the Punjab and at Cawnpur. In recent years the value of exports in cotton twist, yarn, and cloth reached close on 8 millions sterling: woollen manufactures over £220,000. A great manufacture of jute, mainly supported by British capital, has arisen near Calcutta, and lately there were 24 jute-mills in Bengal, with one at Cawnpur. These factories, as well as native hand-looms in the north of Bengal, make gunny-bags for wheat, wool, and other articles of commerce, working up about 3½ million cwts. of raw jute, and employing nearly 70,000 men, women, and children. Over 171 millions of bags are annually exported from Calcutta to Australia for the wool-trade, to California for wheat, to Great Britain, the interior of India, and to Indian and other eastern ports. In the Punjab, the North-Western Provinces, and other parts of the country there were recently 22 breweries supplying over 5 million gallons of beer, and furnishing, in addition to the private local consumption and export-trade, more than 3 million gallons for the Commissariat department of the army. Steam paper-mills at Bombay and near Calcutta have now almost superseded the many small local manufactures, and three great leather-factories at Cawnpur, with much native hand-work in the same material, supply excellent saddlery, accoutrements, and other articles with a cheapness that has restricted importation from the home-country.

The native industries carried on in every village still form, taken altogether, the most important manufactures of India in weaving, pottery, iron and brass work, oil-pressing, ivory-carving, and the making of gold-lace. Little remains of the fine hand-loom fabrics once exported to Europe, but the extent of native work for clothing is still very great, though it is declining rapidly in the Central Provinces and in Bengal, and has been almost extinguished by the cotton-factories in Bombay Presidency. In the south, fine cotton fabrics are still made in the hand-looms of Arni, Masulipatam, Nellore, and other towns and districts. At Surat, Ahmadabad, Broach, Poona, and in other parts of Bombay Presidency good

printed cotton is produced, with some articles including a mixture of silk and borders of gold lace. In the towns, there is much native weaving of silk, and the Punjab and Sind, Agra, Haidarabad in the Deccan, and Tanjore and Trichinopoli in the Madras Presidency, have numerous weavers of mixed silk and cotton, the textures being often embroidered with gold and silver. Benares, Murshidabad, Ahmadabad, and Trichinopoli produce very rich pure silk brocades of most brilliant hue and elaborate patterns. In recent years, silk-mills worked by steam have arisen at Bombay, chiefly furnishing the Burmese market, and turning out of late above 2½ millions of yards of silk piece-goods, and nearly 300,000 yards of mixed fabrics, with a total value of about £160,000. The beautiful and valuable shawls composed of the soft wool of the "shawl-goat" of the Himalayas are made in Kashmir and in some towns of the Punjab. Dacca, Patna, and Delhi have embroideries of muslin with gold and silken thread. In the north of India, including Bengal, carpets and rugs of cotton are made, and there is a large export to Great Britain of woollen carpets in pile, manufactured by criminals in the jails. Kashmir, the Punjab and Sind, and some parts of the centre and the south have weavers of the famous pile-carpets made of short lengths of coloured wool skilfully twisted into the threads of a strong ground-warp of cotton or hemp. The goldsmiths, silversmiths, and jewellers of India produce wonders of taste and skill in hammered work, chains and bracelets, silver filigree, parcel-gilt, gold and silver thread for embroidery and weaving, and work of all kinds in precious stones and pearls. The iron-work of the village smithery consists mainly of implements for the tillage of the soil. The artisans of the towns are still very skilful in ornamented sword-blades, chain-armour, damascene-work of gold on iron and steel, and of silver on bronze. The domestic vessels for the use of villagers are made by the native brazier, one of the chief articles of his handiwork being the ceremonial *lota* or globular bowl for ablutions. Benares has the best craftsmen in Northern India for brass and copper-work in domestic and religious utensils. The village potter turns out only inartistic earthenware for cooking purposes, large jars for storing grain, and floats for enabling persons to cross a swollen stream. Sind and the southern Punjab have craftsmen of a far higher stamp, producing beautiful ware in domestic vessels and glazed encaustic

tiles. Wood-carving, ivory-carving, and inlaying with ebony, ivory, tin-wire, sandal-wood, and brass-wire are the last occupations that need mention here.

The olden means of communication were rivers, canals, and very imperfect roads. The Ganges and the Indus conveyed merchandise and travellers from town to town, and bore the produce of the interior to the sea-board. In the centre and south, there are no navigable rivers, as the heat of the summer reduces the swift broad waters of the rainy season to paltry streams and stagnant pools, and the Narbada and the Godavari, with abundance of water, are hampered by rocky rapids. The steamers on the two great northern rivers, the Indus and the Ganges, lost their passenger-trade after the development of railways, but much of the traffic for heavy goods, needing only cheap and slow transmission, still passes to and fro on their waters. The Brahmaputra and the Irawadi are still almost untouched by railway competition, and in the Gangetic delta boats are the chief mode of access to every village, and the rainy season furnishes a highway for flotillas of craft laden with produce. Boat-racing is a favourite amusement in this region, and the villagers compete with much zeal in the many local regattas, sometimes ending with a procession of torch-lit vessels. Inland navigation is also prosecuted both on ancient and modern canals cut for the purpose, and on those provided for irrigation. The principal land-highway is the Grand Trunk Road, which passes up the Ganges-valley from Calcutta to the frontier on the north-west. This was planned in the sixteenth century as a military road, but was not completed until the days of Lord William Bentinck. The whole of the country under our direct rule now has, for local communication, chief roads well metalled, in stony districts with the calcareous limestone, and, in regions destitute of the best material, with broken brick as a foundation. Government-officials pay due heed to construction and repair, and safe bridges, made of stone or iron, cross all the smaller rivers. Bridges of boats afford a passage across the larger waterways, superseded by ferries during the flood-time of the rainy season. Avenues of trees along the highways supply a grateful shade to the wayfarer, who now sees wheeled vehicles conveying goods instead of the former pack-animals—bullocks, mules, or asses,—and is passed by the post-cart which has largely replaced the *dâk* (dawk), or relay of native

runners who, in earlier times, made their way singly along the jungle-path, shaking a bunch of iron rings to scare away the hyænas. In the hill-country, travellers are still carried in palanquins, covered boxes with wooden shutters like venetian-blinds, borne by poles on men's shoulders, or in wheeled carriages drawn by men or bullocks or ponies sure of foot.

The railway-system of India began, as we have seen, in the days of Lord Dalhousie, and the first railway-ticket was bought in 1853, for a journey from Bombay to Thana (Tanna), now a station on the Great Indian Peninsula railway, 21 miles north-east of that city. The natives of the villages declared that the wonderful carriages that flew along with the speed of the wind were dragged by a fire-devil whom the "Sahibs" locked up in an iron box, but the people of India, more intelligent and less conservative than the Chinese, have now discovered that the fire-devil works more and better miracles than all their saints from the remotest age, and is doing more good than all other resources of civilization. A minute of Lord Dalhousie sketched out the main railways or trunk lines destined to cross the peninsula in joining all the great towns and military centres, and the original scheme was developed and supplemented by Lord Mayo and his successors. The earliest lines were "guaranteed railways", constructed by private companies to whom the Government undertook to pay a minimum interest of 5 per cent on the expended capital, with a half-share for the State in all profits above that amount, and a reserved right of purchase from the companies after a term of years. These lines were made under Government-supervision, and were managed, to a certain extent, under State-control. The gauge was one of 5½ feet, or nearly 10 inches wider than that of British lines, and the cost of construction averaged £17,000 per mile, a very heavy charge for a country like India, having regard to the probable earnings. In 1869, Lord Mayo saw that "the alternative", in his own words, was "cheap railways or none". His desire was to afford benefit to the native population in guarding against increase of taxation, and he therefore started a system of State-railways, constructed with capital raised by the Government, executed by Government-engineers, on a gauge of 3¼ feet in some cases, costing less than £6000 per mile, and provided with lighter rolling-stock. A subsidiary set of lines thus penetrated the interior of the greater provinces within

the triangle formed by the broad-gauge lines connecting Bombay, Calcutta, and Lahore. It was in 1871 that Bombay became directly connected with Calcutta and Madras. A third class of railways consists of those that are worked by private companies as "assisted lines", with a low rate of interest guaranteed by Government for a limited time, and aided in their construction by free grants of land and in other ways. The Native State lines have been constructed by capital locally provided, and the execution and management have been, in most cases, intrusted to persons employed by the Indian Government, or by the companies of main lines to which the Native State railways are subsidiary. Since 1879, the first class of railways, or "guaranteed lines", still worked by the original companies, have been mostly bought up by the State. It is impossible to give here any complete account of the railway-system, now extending over 22,500 miles.

The State-railways, including the guaranteed lines, comprise (1) the East Indian, running from Calcutta to Delhi, with a branch to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), in the Central Provinces; (2) the Eastern Bengal and (3) the Northern Bengal, the latter of which, starting from a point on the former, runs northwards to the foot of the Himalayas, and thence sends forth a shoot in the shape of a light 2-feet gauge line as far as the famous health-resort Darjiling, acquired by the Indian Government in 1835, with a small district round about, ceded for an annual payment by the Raja of Sikkim; the place is thus brought within twenty-four hours of Calcutta. Fourthly, the Great Indian Peninsula, starting from Bombay, sends out one arm north-east to Jabalpur, with a branch to Nagpur, and runs south-east to a junction, at Raichur, in the south of the Nizam's dominions (Haidarabad State) with (5) the Madras Railway, running from the chief city of the Presidency to Raichur, as above, and also across the peninsula to Calicut, with a branch to Bangalore. The Oudh and Rohilkhand line connects, by means of several branches, Lucknow, Cawnpur, Benares, Aligarh, Bareilly, and other important points. The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India runs due north, through Gujarat, to Ahmadabad, and gives a passage, through junction with Rajputana lines, to Agra and Delhi, with their connecting railways to the east and the north-west. The important North-Western includes the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line acquired by the State in 1886, and thus connects

Delhi with Lahore, Peshawar, and Karachi (Kurrachee). The South Indian, a narrow-gauge, conveys passengers and goods from Madras southwards to Pondicherri, Tuticorin, Tinnevelli, and other places of that region. The Bengal-Nagpur Railway taps the great wheat-growing country of the Central Provinces, joining the Great Indian Peninsula line at Nagpur, and thus affording almost straight communication between Bombay and Calcutta. The Indian Midland runs from Bhopal, in Central India, by way of Jhansi and Gwalior to Agra. Several smaller lines, in Bengal, in the Deccan, in the north, and the north-west, afford needed accommodation to travellers, special short railways being, in some parts, constructed to native shrines which are yearly visited by vast numbers of pilgrims from all quarters of the land. About 1500 miles of railway, constructed at the expense of the rulers, exist in the principal Native States of the centre and south. The Gwalior and Indore lines were made from a loan of money advanced to the Indian Government by the Maharajas Sindhia and Holkar, and are under state-management. The most remote, in place, the most recent, in time, of all these priceless labours of the Indian "navvy", with his stark, black-brown shiny skin, and three pennyworth of calico round his hips as sole attire, is the Sind-Pishin Railway, running far beyond the Indus, through the Bolan Pass, to Chaman, on the north-west frontier of British Baluchistan, and only 60 miles south-east of Kandahar. The strategic value of the line is very great, as the territory is the meeting-place of many routes, practicable for troops, leading from Kandahar to Sind and to the Punjab frontier. The camels used for so many ages by caravans of merchants from Herat, Persia, Bokhara, and Samarcand have been at last, in the advance of the British Empire, disestablished by the iron horse, and the end of another chapter of old-world history has been written. At the eastern end of the Bolan Pass is Sibi, whence the line runs by a very tortuous route through the narrowest and most difficult part of the Pass, crossing the Bolan ravine nine times in the space of four miles.

Many great engineering-works have been achieved on the Indian railway-system. The widest rivers and the most formidable swamps have been traversed, and huge embankments of the most massive construction carry the lines over the shifting soil of the delta of the Ganges. In 1875, the Goalanda terminal station

of the Eastern Bengal Railway stood upon an artificial embankment near the edge of the water, at the confluence of the main streams of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. The place was protected by spurs of masonry running out into the river, the whole works having cost above £100,000. In August, the flood-waters came down with violence so destructive that the solid protective masonry, the railway-station, and the magistrate's court were swept away, and deep water thenceforth rolled over their sites. A new terminus was erected two miles inland from the former river-bank, soon to be overwhelmed in its turn, and only temporary buildings are now set up on sites which have been repeatedly changed. Such is the power of nature as displayed by these Indian rivers, the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, which yearly undermine and then tear away many thousands of acres of land, depositing the soil farther down in their channels, and leaving towns such as Rajmahal, the old Mohammedan capital of Bengal, and Kanauj, in the North-Western Provinces, high and dry in ruin. The ancient sacred stream of the Ganges, running through the Districts of Hugli and the twenty-four Parganas, is now an extinct or dried-up river, its course marked by a line of tanks and muddy pools, and with shrines, temples, and burning-ghats, or flights of steps where the Hindus burn the bodies of their dead, along high banks that overlook its deserted bed. One of the grandest triumphs of railway-engineers in India was attained in the construction of the Bhor-Ghât Incline, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The pass called the Bhor-Ghât ascends a stupendous ravine about 40 miles south-east of the city of Bombay, rising to a height of 2027 feet above sea-level, or 1831 feet above the plain at its base. This Ghât was regarded, in olden times, as the key of the Deccan, a post which could be held by a small force against a host of foes attempting to penetrate inland from the sea-board. In 1804, Sir Arthur Wellesley made the route practicable for artillery, and constructed a good road from the top of the Ghât to Poona. In 1830, Sir John Malcolm, then Governor of Bombay, opened a fine military road, giving passage to carriages for the whole distance through the gorge. In 1861, after five years' labour, and the expenditure of nearly £600,000, or £40,000 per mile of road for 15 miles of ascent with an average gradient of 1 foot in 48, the Bhor Ghât Incline was opened by another Governor of Bombay,

Sir Bartle Frere. Half-way up, as the railway rises from Karjat, in the valley below, to Lonauli, at the top of the Ghât, is a plateau with the reversing-station rendered necessary by lack of room for a curve. The railway therefore runs on to the plateau in the form of a **V**, the left-hand shank of the letter representing the line of ascent from the valley, and the right-hand shank being the line still ascending to the top of the pass. Both the up and the down trains run into the reversing-station with their engines facing in the same direction, and are stopped at about 100 yards from the brink of a precipice running down sheer for 200 feet to a jungle-grown ravine. The engine is then shunted round the train, and attached to what was formerly the rear. No platform exists, for none is needed, and no buildings are seen save a hut for the use of the pointsmen. A striking impression is produced by the contrast between the inventive work and the noisy presence of man as a train full of passengers comes thundering on to the plateau, and the previous utter loneliness of the scenery displaying, to right and left, a wild tangle of gorge and beetling cliff, giddy precipice and ravine, bare rock and rich foliage of undergrowth and tree, while the eye, looking down for a thousand feet, wanders over the fair stretch of the Konkan plain, the broad belt of fertile land at the foot of the Ghâts, to gleams of the waters of the Indian Ocean that now and again flash through the sultry haze on the utmost line of sight. Amid rugged grandeur charmingly softened by tropical colour, the great Incline is carried with twists around shoulders of the mighty hills, with nearly a mile and a half of tunnelling through intervening crags, creeping along narrow ledges on the face of the precipice, passing over 8 viaducts from 150 to 500 feet in length, and from 45 to 160 feet in height above the footing, the largest of these works having eight semicircular arches of 50 feet span. Smaller ravines and water-courses are crossed by 18 bridges of spans from 7 to 30 feet, and by 58 culverts of from 2 to 6 feet in width. Over 1,600,000 cubic yards of earth were removed by cuttings, and about 1,850,000 cubic yards were piled in embankments, of which the highest rises to 74 feet. The telegraphs of India, as begun under Lord Dalhousie, have been already described, and we need only state here that there are about 40,000 miles of line, with thrice that length of wire, and over 1000 telegraph-offices. The number of letters, newspapers, and packets despatched in the

year 1891–92 was nearly 350 millions, deposited in about 21,500 post-offices and letter-boxes. In the year ending March 31st, 1892, the mails travelled over nearly 78,000 miles, of which above 56,000 were done by steamers, rowing or sailing boats, and "runners" (the *dâk*); about 4000 miles on horseback and by carts; and 17,000 miles by railway.

Particulars of the amount and value of some chief Indian exports, taken from late statistical accounts, have been already given, to which we may add hides and skins worth over 5¾ millions sterling; dyes to the value of above 6 millions; spices, nearly ½ million; timber in the rough and manufactured, £590,000; and raw wool, nearly 1¾ millions. For a most interesting account of past and present Indian trade and commerce in every kind of produce and manufacture we must again refer readers to Sir W. W. Hunter's *The Indian Empire*, 3rd edition (1893). After the Portuguese, the Dutch, the Danes, and the French had in succession failed in creating great centres of trade, British enterprise and energy, at an early period of our rule, caused the growth of large mercantile towns. A new era of production on a great scale has come in the co-operation of capital and labour, replacing to a large extent the small household manufactures of former days. In other words, steam-machinery, mechanical invention and skill, are doing for our Eastern Empire just what they have effected in the British Isles since the latter half of the eighteenth century. Calcutta, Bombay, and other great industrial cities have slowly risen to their present size and wealth, and the whole country has passed into a new and more advanced stage of economic civilization. A vast territory, which did not produce, in 1700, staples for exportation to the annual value of 1 million sterling, had a total foreign trade (including Burma here as "India"), as given in a recent statistical return, to the amount of over 206 millions, more than 110 millions being exports of the kind already detailed. The imports consisted mainly of yarns and textile fabrics, 37½ millions; bullion and specie, nearly 18½ millions; metals, raw and manufactured, including machinery and mill-work, nearly 10 millions; books, paper, and stationery, over 1 million; coal and coke, nearly 1 million; glass and its fabrics, £788,000; jewellery, precious stones, and plate, £289,000; drugs and medicines, £522,000; malt liquors, £427,000; provisions, including dried fruits, over 1¾ millions; salt, £790,000;

raw silk, £1,360,000; spices, £873,000; spirits, £686,000; sugar, over 2¾ millions; tea, £572,000; wines and liqueurs, £342,000. Of the whole import and export trade in the return with which we are dealing, over 90 millions sterling in value was with the United Kingdom, the next countries, at a great interval, being China, France, Germany, the Straits Settlements, the United States, Belgium, Italy, Egypt, Austria, and Ceylon. Over 1700 steamships, with tonnage exceeding 3½ millions, went to and from Indian ports by way of the Suez Canal. The total tonnage entered and cleared at Indian ports (over 10,700 vessels) in one year recently amounted to nearly 7¾ million tons, of which over 6000 ships (6½ million tons) were British or British-Indian vessels. The foreign vessels numbered over 1400, of nearly a million tons; the native craft exceeded 3000, with an average tonnage little exceeding fifty. With all her extent of sea-board, India has but few ports. As regards the sea-borne trade with foreign countries, Calcutta has the commerce of Lower Bengal and of the whole valleys of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; Bombay conducts the trade of Western India, the Deccan, Gujarat, and the Central Provinces; Karachi that of the Indus valley. At these points the chief lines of railway reach the sea, Calcutta and Bombay having nearly four-fifths of the whole foreign trade between them, while Madras had less than 5½ per cent, and Karachi, with a steady growth in recent years, nearly 4½ per cent. The growth of Indian commerce, since the adoption of free trade for India, is well illustrated by the fact that in 1834 the exports were valued at under 10 millions, and the imports at about 2½ millions sterling. Since 1840, the imports have increased above ninefold, and the exports about sevenfold.

The coasting-trade is carried on through little ports along the whole eastern and western coasts, the people of the Gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, on the Malabar coast, and in the extreme south having numerous bold and skilful sailors. A considerable frontier-traffic, for which no figures can be given except that recently the total annual imports and exports probably exceeded 5 millions sterling in value, is carried on with Afghanistan and her neighbours, and with Kashmir, Nipal (Nepaul), and other Himalayan and trans-Himalayan peoples. The imports consist chiefly of raw silk, dried fruits and nuts, dyes and drugs, lac and other

jungle produce, and, from Nipal, also of food-grains and oil-seeds, timber and cattle. The exports are mainly cotton goods, tea, salt, indigo, metals, grain, sugar, and spices. The vast internal trade of India, far exceeding her foreign commerce in amount, consists in gathering agricultural produce from countless villages and districts for transmission to the ports; in the distribution of imported goods, and in the interchange of native commodities. Most of the traffic is in native hands, the whole number of people connected with trade, manufactures, and commerce in India, including the families subsisting thereon, being estimated, by the careful census of 1891, at over 56 millions. The local trade is carried on at the *bazars* of the towns, at weekly rural markets, by travelling dealers and agents, and at fairs held annually or at shorter intervals. A gay scene is presented by the yearly fair held at Karagola, in Lower Bengal, on the old route from Calcutta to Darjiling. For ten days, a large sandy plain is covered with streets of small shops made of bamboos and matting, and the people chaffer, with Hindu pertinacity and cunning, over goods of every kind except the local staples of jute, tobacco, and grain. Cloth of every texture, from Dacca muslin to thick British woollen; ironware, furniture, boots, shawls, silks, brocades, hand-mills, cutlery, drugs, and many articles of British make, from soap to umbrellas, and matches to buttons, paper, and candles, here exchange owners in February.

CHAPTER IX.

INDIA—*Continued.*

BRITISH PROVINCES AND ADMINISTRATION: NATIVE STATES.

Political divisions of the country. AJMERE—Physical features and products—Wise rule of Colonel Dixon—Contentment of the people during the Mutiny—Administration—Ajmere and other principal towns. ASSAM—Extent and population—Invasion of the Ahams and Burmese—Aboriginal tribes—Products—Manufactures—Administration—Education and sanitation—Chief towns. BENGAL—Countries of Lower Bengal—Bengal Proper—Behar—Orissa, the high-place of Hinduism—The car-festival and worship of Jagannath—Chutia Nagpur—Administration—People—Chief towns—Calcutta. BERAR—Area and population—Chief towns. BOMBAY—Its divisions—Administration—Sind—Rann of Cutch—Countries of the Northern Division—of the Central Division—of the Southern Division—Chief towns—Bombay. CENTRAL PROVINCES—Area, population, and products—Chief towns. COORG—Loyalty of its people—The Raja and his daughter Princess Victoria Gauramma—Mausoleums at Merkara. MADRAS—Extent, productions, and people—Industries—Administration—Chief towns—Madras. NORTH-WEST PROVINCES and OUDH—Area and population—Administration of the Provinces—Chief towns—Benares—Sanitaria or hill-stations—Characteristics of Oudh—Lucknow and Faizabad. THE PUNJAB—Physical character and population—Administration—Trade—Chief towns—Lahore—Delhi—Simla. Character of British Administration in India—The District Officer—Monopolies of opium and salt—Extent of municipal government—Money, weights, and measures—Progress of education—Newspapers and books. British Baluchistan and Sikkim—The Andaman, Nicobar, and Laccadive Islands. The Native States—Their relation to British rule—Area and population—Statistics of Native States under the respective Governments—Shan States—Manipur—Rajputana States—Kashmir—Haidarabad—Baroda—Mysore—Chief towns in the Native States.

The Provinces now under direct British rule, apart from Burma, are AJMERE, ASSAM, BENGAL, BERAR, BOMBAY ("Presidency", with SIND), the CENTRAL PROVINCES, COORG, MADRAS, the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES (with OUDH), and the PUNJAB. Of these, MADRAS and BOMBAY are "Governments", ruled by "Governors"; BENGAL, the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES, and the PUNJAB are "Lieutenant-Governorships". OUDH has been incorporated, since 1877, with the North-Western Provinces, and the Lieutenant-Governor of that territory is also "Chief Commissioner" of Oudh. The CENTRAL PROVINCES and ASSAM are under "Chief Commissioners"; AJMERE, BERAR, and COORG are ruled by "Commissioners". We proceed to a brief account of these provinces in their alphabetical order.

AJMERE, or strictly, AJMERE-MERWARA (from its Sub-division in

the hill-district, inhabited by descendants of old robber-tribes), is an isolated province in Rajputana, surrounded by Native States, and has an area of 2711 square miles, with a population of about 550,000. The Viceroy's Agent for Rajputana is *ex officio* Commissioner, having his head-quarters and summer residence on the famous sacred mountain, Abu, with beautiful Jain temples, in Sirohi State. Ajmere contains the central portion of the Aravalli Hills, rising to a height of nearly 3000 feet near the town of Ajmere, and running to the south-west. The district lies high, at the centre of the watershed, and has no important rivers, but is well irrigated by several hundreds of "tanks", formed by embanking the gorges of hill-streams, works mainly due to the wisdom and energy of Colonel Dixon, who held sway as administrator from 1836 to 1857. Much has been done to clothe again with woods the denuded hill-sides, and the large game includes leopards and the wild pigs hunted by the Rajput land-owners. The beneficial rule of Colonel Dixon had so far won the hearts of the people that little trouble arose during the revolt of 1857. Two regiments of Bengal infantry and a battery of Bengal artillery rose at the military station of Nasirabad (Nusseerabad), but a regiment of Bombay infantry protected the European residents, and soldiers of the Merwara battalion faithfully guarded the Ajmere treasury and magazine. The mutinous Sepoys went off to Delhi, and peace abode in Ajmere, where the peasantry, under just and kindly British rule, would have nothing to do with the cause of rebellion. Nearly nine-tenths of the people are Hindus in religion, and the rest are Mohammedans. There is a large class (about 15,000) of Rajput land-owners, a proud, warlike, indolent race, carrying arms, and great consumers of opium. The best tillers of the soil are Jats, a race physically fine, industrious and skilled in their vocation, probably of Scythian origin, numbering nearly 5 millions in all India, of whom about 35,000 dwell in Ajmere. The Gujars, mostly Mohammedans, as are the Jats, are in about equal numbers, devoted to grazing rather than to cultivation. The chief crops are maize, barley, *joar*, *bajra*, cotton, pulses, and oil-seeds. In 1868–69, a severe famine caused the death of over 100,000 people and one-third of the cattle, and impoverished the surviving cultivators, who are still deeply indebted to the money-lenders. The wages of coolies have, however, risen from about 2½*d.* per day in 1850 to 1*s.*, and the Rajputana State Railway and Rajputana-

Malwa line, giving access to other and fertile regions, have cheapened many commodities and provided for relief in any future time of scarcity.

As regards administration, the Commissioner is the civil and criminal Judge, with the control of police and prisons, education and registration, aided by two Assistant-Commissioners, and by forty-five officers with various magisterial powers. Education is in a backward state, though the United Presbyterian Mission has about 2000 pupils in 60 schools, and the whole Division contains 140 schools with about 5500 learners. The Ajmere College, having over 200 students enrolled, is affiliated to Calcutta University, and the Mayo College, planned by the Viceroy in 1870, and carried on since 1875, is an institution supported by the State and by Rajput chiefs, for the training of the sons of the nobles of the land. The town of *Ajmere*, now having about 70,000 people, lies 677 miles north of Bombay, on the lower slope of the Taragarh Hill, crowned by a fortress of the same name at the height of 2850 feet, nearly surrounded by inaccessible precipices, and elsewhere defended by a wall of huge stone-blocks, 20 feet in thickness. The place, once an important stronghold, is now dismantled of artillery, and has been used since 1860 as a sanitarium for the European troops stationed at Nasirabad. On the north side of the town is the Ana Sagar Lake, overlooked by the Daulat Bagh ("Garden of Splendour") constructed in the sixteenth century by the emperor Jahangir. Elegant marble buildings, giving a full view of the town, stand on the edge of the limpid waters that reflect the hills around the spacious grounds, full of ancient and stately trees. This delightful spot is now an abode of the Commissioner. Ajmere is the centre of the transport-trade in sugars and cotton-cloth, as chief imports, and raw cotton, grain, and poppy-seeds as exports, the local business having much increased since the railway displaced camels and bullocks. The other chief towns are *Nasirabad*, having 21,000 people, where the cantonments, laid out in 1818 by Sir David Ochterlony, are held by troops of the Bombay army; and *Beawar* (16,000), founded in 1835 by Colonel Dixon, a spacious place with tree-planted streets, houses of masonry with tiled roofs, and the chief cotton-trade of the Province.

ASSAM, lying on the north-eastern border of Bengal, and including the valleys of the rivers Brahmaputra and Barak or Surma,

with the mountainous watershed between them, is about the size of England, with an area of 49,000 square miles, and a population now of nearly 5½ millions. Ceded to us by the Burmese king in 1826, and since extended by lapse of part of Cachar in 1830 and by annexations of hill-country due to conquest, the Province assumed its present form of administration in 1874, when the eleven Districts were separated from Bengal. Assam proper is simply the Brahmaputra valley, the people, though they have now largely adopted the Brahmanical religion, being distinct in race, language, and history from the Hindus. There and in Cachar (in the Barak valley) the population is mostly of Indo-Chinese stock, with much admixture in recent years from Bengal immigration for labour in the tea-plantations. At some time in the thirteenth century, the Ahams, a people akin to the Siamese, invaded the country from the east and slowly made their way, and they are supposed to have furnished the country with its present name. It was early in the nineteenth century that the Burmese conquered the land, and displayed the grossest tyranny. The people of the hills, especially the Nagas and Lushais, are of an uncivilized and predatory character. The Khasis and the Garos, other aboriginal tribes, with their primitive religion, customs, language, and nationality unchanged, live in hill-ranges of that name, and each exceed 100,000. The Kacharis, a barbarous race in the lower part of the Brahmaputra valley, number over ¼ million, and the whole aboriginal population is reckoned at 1½ millions, of whom two-thirds, however, have abandoned their ancient faiths for Hinduism. The minerals of the country include much excellent coal, now beginning to be worked; and immense beds of limestone which have for ages given to Bengal most of her supply as "Sylhet lime", from the name of the District in the lower valley of the Barak or Surma. The forests furnish much valuable timber and caoutchouc (india-rubber), which are exported to Bengal. The staple crop is rice, grown three times a year in the Brahmaputra valley on soil requiring neither irrigation nor manure, but fertilized by silt deposited in overflow. Mustard-seed, sugar-cane, maize, betel-nut, tobacco, jute and cotton are also produced, and the people are generally in a prosperous condition, under the light taxation of a Government that is the superior landlord, with none to intervene as oppressors between the supreme authority and the actual tillers of the soil.

A heavy rainfall, occurring in eight or nine months of the year, makes the climate somewhat temperate and very damp, with much fog in the winter, and causes the vegetation to be luxuriant and tropical in character. The tea-industry has been already mentioned. The manufactures, of a petty nature, include cotton-cloth, brassware, grass mats, and ivory-work in material obtained from the still numerous elephants of the jungles, and in Sylhet lime-burning, boat-building, and sugar-boiling are carried on. The commerce is mainly conducted by the waters of the two chief rivers, everywhere navigable for steamers and other craft. Internal communication is favoured by excellent roads, tramways, and the beginnings of a railway-system both in Cachar and Upper Assam.

The Chief Commissioner is assisted by a Commissioner for the Assam Valley, and by thirteen Deputy-Commissioners, one for each District, in charge of fiscal, executive, and some of the judicial affairs. These posts, under the "non-regulation" system, are open to military officers and to "uncovenanted" civilians, as well as to members of the "covenanted" or regular Civil Service, Sylhet alone being reserved for a covenanted officer. Order is maintained, within the Province and on the frontiers, by about 1600 police, officers and men, and by a well-armed and semi-military force of 2200. *Chaukidars*, or village-watchmen, about 4500 in number, exist in the Districts of Goalpara, Sylhet, and Cachar. Four regiments of Native Infantry, numbering 3325 officers and men, form the usual garrison. About 1300 schools, with 41,000 pupils, including eleven "High Schools", are under Government-inspection, and about 6000 children are taught in middle-class English and vernacular institutions. The primary schools, in 1880–81, had over 31,000 boys, and 1130 girls under instruction. Oral teaching, chiefly religious, is given in a number of indigenous, or unaided and uninspected schools. The educational state of Assam may be estimated by a recent return, which showed over 95 per cent of the males, and 99·87 per cent of the females to be "illiterate". In sanitary matters some progress has been made in reducing malaria by clearing jungle, in enforcing cleanliness in towns, and by vaccination, these measures being under the control of a Deputy Surgeon-General, who is also Sanitary Commissioner. The seat of government is at *Shillong*, a small town in the Khasi Hills District, on a plateau about 5000 feet above sea-level, a healthy

place conveniently situated between the Brahmaputra and Surma (or Barak) valleys. A fine road leads thither from Gauhati, a town of about 12,000 people on the south bank of the Brahmaputra, ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom of Assam before the Ahams appeared on the scene, and now a chief place of the river-trade. Shillong (about 4000 people) has good official buildings, an excellent water-supply from the hills, a church, and a regiment of Bengal infantry as garrison. The largest town in the province is *Sylhet*, on the right or north bank of the Surma, with 18,000 inhabitants, largely engaged in the river-trade. *Sibsagar*, on the Dikku river, and *Dibrugarh*, in the Lakhimpur District, are centres of the tea-trade, and *Silchar*, in Cachar District, on the south bank of the Barak (Surma), is the centre of the tea-plantations in that quarter. One trouble of Assam is a liability to earthquakes, which in 1869 did great damage at Silchar and Sylhet.

In coming to BENGAL, we begin to apprehend the vast extent of our Indian Empire. There is now, strictly speaking, no "Bengal Presidency" in the administrative sense, except for military affairs, as already shown. *Lower Bengal*, the Lieutenant-Governorship, largest and most populous of all the British Provinces, includes *Bengal Proper*, *Behar*, *Orissa*, and *Chutia Nagpur*, with an area of 151,000 square miles (about three Englands), and a population (1891) exceeding 71 millions, one-third of the total numbers in British India. Above 4½ millions have been added, by natural increase, since 1881, and the density is now about 480 per square mile. The geography of this great region needs little description beyond that which has been incidentally given, and the natural products, with the occupations of the people, have been already indicated. *Bengal Proper*, stretching from Orissa to Lower Burma along the sea-board, and inland from the coast to the Himalayas, includes the united deltas of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra and much of the valleys of those mighty rivers and their tributaries. This territory has an area of over 70,000 square miles, exclusive of the unsurveyed and half-submerged Sundarbans, estimated at about 6000. *Behar*, with an area of 44,000 square miles, lies on the north-west of Bengal Proper, and includes the higher valley of the Ganges as far as the North-Western Provinces. *Orissa* (9000 square miles) comprises the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and adjacent rivers, with the Bay of Bengal on the south-east and the Tributary

Hill States to the north-west. *Chutia Nagpur* (27,000 square miles) lies between Behar and Orissa, but stretches far westward into the hill-country.

Behar contains a population of over 23 millions, dwelling in about 77,400 villages and towns. The country is generally flat, is well supplied with canals, railways, and roads, and has the manufactures of opium and indigo as its chief industries. Of *Orissa* we have already seen much in connection with the famine of 1866. The great crop is rice; the chief import, cotton piece-goods. Wheat, pulse and pease, oil-seeds, hemp, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, and betel are also grown, the main area of tillage being in the hands of small cultivators, so that 60 per cent of all the farms are below 10 acres. Education is well advanced for India; recent returns show that one boy out of three, of suitable age, attends at the 9000 schools, with 106,000 pupils. British Orissa has a population of about 4 millions; the Tributary States, 17 dependent territories in a wild region between the alluvial delta and the Central Indian plateau, have an area of about 15,000 square miles and a population of 1½ millions. Orissa is the very focus of Hinduism, in its essential spirit and most concentrated form. The Brahmans worship Siva, the All-Destroyer, in whose honour shrine after shrine is found on the southern bank of the river Baitarani. Vishnu is the popular god, reverenced for ages in the town of *Puri*, (commonly called Jagannath) under his title of Jagannath (Juggernaut), the "Lord of the World". The famous Car-Festival is often attended by 90,000 worshippers, and the number has reached nearly 150,000. Of the pilgrims from all parts about 10,000 yearly perish from fatigue and disease due to insanitary crowding; the fable concerning self-immolation under the wheels of the great car has been already exposed. Every fiscal division of the country has a community of ascetics; nearly every village has its shrine and consecrated lands; every town contains many temples of the god. For two thousand years, Orissa has been the Holy Land of the Hindus, with four regions of pilgrimage, of which the two now most frequented have their head-quarters at Jajpur, sacred to the wife of Siva, and at Puri, the chief place, as above, of Vishnuite devotion. In this isolated corner of Orissa, in the words of Sir W. W. Hunter, "on these inhospitable sands, Hindu religion and Hindu superstition have stood at bay for eighteen centuries against the

world. Here is the national temple, whither the people flock to worship from every province of India. Here is the *Swarga-dwara*, the Gate of Heaven, whither thousands of pilgrims come to die, lulled to their last sleep by the roar of the eternal ocean. Twenty generations of devout Hindus have gone through life, haunted with a perpetual yearning to visit these fever-stricken sandhills." When the Province was occupied by British troops on its annexation in 1803, Lord Wellesley gave express orders that the temple of Jagannath, and the religious prejudices of the Brahmans and pilgrims should be respected. On this, a deputation of Brahmans came into the camp and placed the temple under our protection without the striking of a blow. All the payments for charitable uses established by the previous Maratha (Mahratta) rulers were continued by the British Government, including the superintendence of Jagannath's shrine, and the lands thus granted by the State have a present annual value of £4000. For a most graphic and interesting account of the growth and present state of the worship of Jagannath we refer our readers to Sir W. W. Hunter's *Orissa*, or to the condensed account by the same author, given in the articles *Orissa* and *Puri Town* in his invaluable *Imperial Gazetteer of India*. We may note, as matter of meditation for Christian philosophers, the same writer's statements that "the true source of Jagannath's undying hold upon the Hindu race consists in the fact that he is the god of the people", and that his worship is "a perpetual and visible protest of the equality of man before God". "In the presence of the Lord of the World, priest and peasant are equal. The rice that has once been placed before the god can never cease to be pure, or lose its reflected sanctity. In the courts of Jagannath, and outside the Lion Gate, 100,000 pilgrims every year are joined in the sacrament of eating the Holy Food (*mahaprasad*). The lowest may demand it from, or give it to, the highest. Its sanctity overleaps all barriers, not only of caste, but of race and hostile faiths; and a Puri priest will stand the test of receiving the food from a Christian hand." It is this ennobling spirit, combined with a catholicity of worship that embraces every form of Indian belief, every Indian conception of the deity, every species of ritual, which has given such enormous sway to the religion of the god whose devotees lay precious metals and jewels, and charters and title-deeds of lands, at his feet, and to whose service Ranjit Singh, the Lion

WORSHIPPERS PROSTRATING THEMSELVES BEFORE THE FAMOUS CAR AT THE FESTIVAL OF JAGANNATH.

In the province of Orissa is situated the city of Purí, to which the people flock to worship from every part of India. Here is situated the great national temple of Jagannáth (or Juggernaut), the ancient deity of the Hindu race. The service of the temple consists in a daily round of ceremonies, and of great festivals at stated periods. The most important of these is the Car Festival. The sacred Car is 45 feet in height, 35 feet square, and is moved upon sixteen large wheels. When the image of the god is placed upon the Car, music strikes up, drums beat, cymbals clash, and a dense body of devotees move slowly forward, dragging the huge structure, while others jump, shout, or cast themselves on the ground in prayer. The distance from the temple to the god's country house—the destination of the image—is only about a mile, yet the labour of dragging the Car is so great that the journey takes several days. In this vast and excited crowd of 100,000 pilgrims accidents usually occur, but the old European belief that the devotees deliberately cast themselves under the wheels of the Car has no basis in fact. Death in this mode is a thing entirely opposed to the spirit of their religion.

W. H. MARGETSON.

WORSHIPPERS PROSTRATING THEMSELVES BEFORE THE FAMOUS CAR AT THE FESTIVAL OF JAGANNATH.

of the Punjab, bequeathed the Koh-i-Nur (Kohinoor) or Mountain of Light, that, on great occasions, gleamed in a brooch adorning the attire of the Empress of India.

Chutia Nagpur, in its full extent, includes nine Tributary States to the west, and has an area of 43,000 square miles, with a population exceeding 5½ millions. The country produces rice and the other usual grains, as well as some tea, cotton, and tobacco. There is much hilly ground and jungle, with carnivorous animals and abundant winged game. The aboriginal tribes, Kols, Santals, Gonds, &c., are about one million in number.

The whole of the great region composed of these four territories, collectively known as Bengal, is portioned into nine Divisions, each ruled by a Commissioner. Five of these, the "Presidency" Division, including Calcutta and neighbouring districts, Bardwan, Rajshahi, Dacca, and Chittagong, form Bengal Proper; Patna and Bhagalpur make up Behar; Orissa and Chutia Nagpur are each a Commissionership or Division. These are again subdivided into 47 Districts, varying in size from 8 square miles (Calcutta city), and 23 square miles (Calcutta suburbs) through Howrah (476 square miles) a district near Calcutta, to Lohardaga, in Chutia Nagpur, with an area of above 12,000. In Bengal we have a population that "exhibits every stage of human progress, and every type of human enlightenment and superstition—from the sceptical educated classes, represented by the Hindu gentleman who distinguishes himself at Oxford or a London Inn of Court, to the hill chieftain who a few years ago sacrificed an idiot on the top of a mountain to obtain a favourable decision in a Privy Council Appeal". A large part of the people belongs to the same Aryan race as most Europeans, with characteristics profoundly modified by circumstance and time. In religion, 45½ millions have been returned as "Hindus", but this "convenient generic term" as Sir W. W. Hunter points out, comprises elements of very diverse ethnical origin, and separated by language, customs, and religious rites. A notable fact is the existence of above 22 millions of Mohammedans, making the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, so far as numbers are concerned, a greater Mussulman ruler than the Sultan of Turkey. Aboriginal beliefs are professed by about 2½ millions of semi-savages, and Christianity brings up the rear, at a vast

interval, with about 130,000 converts. During recent years, a great Mohammedan revival has produced important religious and social effects in widening the distinction between the Mussulman and the Hindu. The Mohammedan peasantry have cast off all connection with Hindu superstition and idolatry, and, declining to continue their former offerings to Krishna and Durga, for the averting of evil due to famine, flood, or any other cause, they look to the official in charge of the District for protection, or petition the Government, or write strong letters to the vernacular press. We should observe that Bengal contained, in 1881, nearly 40,000 Europeans and non-Asiatics, including Eurasians, of whom about 34,500 were in Bengal Proper, and of these above five-sevenths resident in Calcutta and that neighbourhood.

The chief towns of Bengal are Calcutta, Howrah, Patna, Dacca, Murshidabad, Hugli (with Chinsurah), Cuttack, Puri, Gaya, Chittagong, and Darjiling. *Calcutta*, with a population (1891) of 862,000, is the capital of British India, as the winter-residence of the Viceroy and partly the seat of supreme Government; the capital of Bengal; and the outlet of commerce for the whole river-systems of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra. Since the construction of the Suez Canal and the development of Indian railways, it has come to rank second in foreign trade to Bombay, favoured by a magnificent harbour and nearness to Europe. No detailed description of the place, adorned with splendid public buildings and supplied with all the requisites of civilization belonging to a first-class capital, can here be attempted. One of the chief features of the city is the central street, Chauringhi, lined with superb houses, of which about sixty occupy a mile and a half of road from north to south, facing the open plain, *maidan*, on the river-bank; behind this, and connected with it by three main routes, Park Street, Theatre Road, and Lower Circular Road, lies the fashionable European quarter. The native town skirts this on the north and east, partly composed of mere hamlets of mud-huts. The monuments include the noble Ochterlony column, 165 feet in height, with a Saracenic capital; and Foley's fine bronze equestrian statue of Outram, representing "The Bayard of the East" with drawn sword, looking round to and waving on his men. This favourite object of native gaze, beautiful in design, spirited and lifelike in execution, stands on the

Chauringhi side of the great tree-studded grassy park, opposite the United Service Club. Government House, at the northern end of the *maidan*, built by Lord Wellesley at the cost of £150,000, has four great wings running to each point of the compass from a central pile approached by a grand flight of steps on the north. The Grand Hall is one of the finest chambers in the world. In the year 1892-93 the total value of the foreign import and export trade of Calcutta exceeded 63½ millions of tens of rupees. *Howrah* (116,000 people in 1891) lies opposite Calcutta, connected therewith by a massive pontoon, or floating bridge, opened in 1874. There are large dockyards, the Bengal terminus of the East Indian Railway, manufactories and mills, and suburban houses of Calcutta men of business. *Patna* (165,000 people in 1891), on the right or south bank of the Ganges, is the chief town of the Patna District (also of Patna Division) of Bengal. This ancient city is identical with the "Palibothra" of the Greek historian and envoy Megasthenes, about 300 B.C. It is a closely and irregularly built place, with many brick houses, but with most of them built of mud with tiled roofs; the dust in the dry season, the mud in the rainy, are beyond description. There is much trade in the Bengal produce with which we are familiar, and in European cotton manufactures, both river and railway being freely used. *Dacca*, with 82,000 people (1891), is also chief town both of a District and a Division, and lies on the north bank of the Buriganga river, formerly the main stream of the Ganges. Architecturally, the place is utterly decayed from its former splendour as the Mohammedan capital of Bengal in the seventeenth century. The muslin-making has been already mentioned. The Dacca College, with an European staff of teachers, is one of the best institutions of the kind in India. The trade in Bengal produce is great; the population, after long decline, is growing; the sanitary condition has been much improved, and there is now a good supply of pure water. *Murshidabad*, with 39,000 inhabitants, is the capital of its District of the same name, and has greatly declined in population and splendour since it was the Mohammedan capital of Bengal, a distinction which it held in the eighteenth century, down to 1772. The chief building is the splendid modern Italian "palace", completed in 1837, at a cost of £167,000, of the "Nawab Bahadur of Murshidabad", descendant of Mir

Jafar (Meer Jaffier) whom we saw in the days of Clive, and living on his hereditary pension. A beautiful ivory throne, with painted and gilded flowers, displays the skill and finish of work in that material for which the city is famous. *Hugli-with-Chinsurah*, with 31,000 inhabitants, is the union, in the order as given, of an old Portuguese with an old Dutch town, both already mentioned in this record. It lies on the right bank of the river Hugli, 25 miles above Calcutta, and is the capital of its District, with a station on the East Indian Railway. *Cuttack*, with about 43,000 inhabitants, is the chief town of Orissa, situated on a peninsula formed by the bifurcation of the Mahanadi. As the centre of the network of Orissa canals, it has commercial importance, and is noted for its filigree work in silver and gold. *Puri*, chief town of its District in Orissa, has about 23,000 people. This town of lodging-houses, with no trade or manufactures, full of huts made of wattle and clay in paltry streets, has been mentioned above in connection with the worship of Jagannath. *Gaya* (76,000 people), in South Behar, is the chief town and head-quarters of its District, which has many holy places in connection both with the old Buddhism and the modern Hindu faith. *Chittagong* (over 21,000 people), near the mouth of a river entering the Bay of Bengal eastwards of the Brahmaputra delta, is the second place of sea-trade in Bengal, with an excellent port, and a railway to Cachar and Upper Assam. The imports and exports are of nearly equal worth, and yearly together approach two millions sterling, rice, jute, gunny-bags, and tea being sent away, and salt and European cotton-goods (twist, yarn, and cloth) received. *Darjiling* is chief town and administrative head-quarters of its District, in the Rajshahi Division of Bengal. The District runs up between Nipal and Bhutan towards Independent Sikkim, and includes both ridges and deep valleys of the lower Himalayas, and the *tarai* or marshy strip at the foot of the hills. The scenery is of the grandest description, comprising mountain-spurs that rise abruptly from the plains to heights of from 6000 to 10,000 feet, clad in woods to the summit, with a jagged background of dazzling snow connecting Mounts Everest (29,002 feet) and Kanchanjanga (Kinchinjunga) (28,176), the two loftiest known peaks in the world. The growth of tea and cinchona has been already referred to. The town lies at a height of over 7000 feet above

sea-level, with a normal or resident population (in 1881) of about 7000, largely increased by visitors in the hot season. There are other towns in Bengal, some containing a larger population than most of those above named, but not otherwise noteworthy, such as *Monghyr*, a picturesque place on the Ganges; *Arrah* and *Dinapur*, famous in the Mutiny days of 1857; *Behar*, *Bhagalpur*, and *Darbhanghar*.

The Province of BERAR ("Haidarabad Assigned Districts", made over to us by the Nizam of Haidarabad in 1853 and finally arranged in 1861) lies in west-central India, surrounded by the Central Provinces (north and east), the Nizam's Dominions (south), and Khandesh (west). With the area of nearly 18,000 square miles, the territory contains about 3 millions of people, mostly Hindus in religious faith. Nearly one quarter of the country is covered with valuable forests; *joar*, wheat, linseed, and cotton are the chief crops produced, the export of the last being very large. Here, as elsewhere in India, the railway has done wonders for the development of resources and the prosperity of the people. Among the chief towns are *Akola* (17,000), *Amraoti* (24,000), and *Ellichpur* (27,000), the two former being seats of government for the Commissioner and his Deputies. Amraoti and *Khamgaon* (14,000) are the chief cotton-marts, and the former has much spinning and weaving. Ellichpur is a decayed place, but has near it the military cantonment (about 1000 men) of the Province. *Chikalda*, on a plateau about 3600 feet above the sea, is the sanitarium, with beautiful scenery and a rare display of roses, clematis, orchids, ferns, and lilies in their seasons, and an equable, cool, and bracing climate.

The Government ("Presidency") of BOMBAY has an area of 125,000 square miles, of which nearly 48,000 are comprised in SIND, and a population of fully 19 millions, including nearly 3 millions in Sind. The whole of the territory lies on the western side of India, from the borders of Baluchistan to beyond the Portuguese district of Goa. The four great Divisions (*Sind*, *Northern*, *Central*, and *Southern*) comprise 23 Districts, exclusive of Bombay city and island, which form another District. We may here note that the District is the unit of administration for both fiscal and judicial purposes, and that in the Bombay Province each District has, on the average, 10 *taluks* or sub-divisions, each containing

about 100 Government-villages, or hamlets of which the revenue has not been alienated by the State. Each of these villages has a hereditary body of officials, remunerated by grants of land held free of taxation, and each place is a complete community for fiscal and police affairs, with its *patel* (*potail*) or head-man; a clerk and accountant; a kind of beadle; and the watchman. A Government-officer supervises each *taluk* or sub-division, and 3 *taluks*, as a rule, are in charge of an Assistant or Deputy-Collector. Each of the four Divisions is under a Commissioner, finally subject to the Governor and Council as the chief executive and legislative authority, composed of four members, the Governor as President, the Bombay Commander-in-chief, and two members of the Covenanted Civil Service.

SIND includes the lower valley and delta of the Indus, with mountains rising to 7000 feet on the Baluchistan frontier, and the wild and rocky tract of Kohistan, in the south-west, but most of the country consists of dry level desert and alluvial plains. The Rann of Cutch, in the south, marked on the maps as sea, is a peculiar feature, being chiefly a salt lake from June to November, and for the rest of the year a waste of 9000 square miles in area, with a salt-incrusted surface, over which herds of antelopes and wild asses roam. Above three-fourths of the people are Mohammedans, and the rest are Hindus, Sikhs, and aborigines, with a few Christians, Jains, and Parsis. The Sindis are the original Hindu population, taller and more robust than the Bengalis, with muscular frames and dark skin. Most of the land is absolutely barren, little more than 2 millions of acres being under tillage, producing the usual grains, and also oil-seeds, indigo, and hemp. Fine apples are grown, in addition to the common tropical fruits, and British rule has introduced, with good results, the cultivation of apricots, nectarines, and peaches. The great river, excellent roads, and the railways afford free communication, the Indus, as the most important source of wealth both for irrigation and traffic, being specially cared for by a Conservancy Board. A Commissioner holds sway over the three "Collectorates" of Karachi, Shikapur, and Haidarabad, and the two Districts, Thar-with-Parkar and the Upper Sind Frontier, each of which has a Deputy-Commissioner. Education has made much progress under British administration.

The *Northern Division* of Bombay Presidency includes Gujarat and the country between the Ghats and the sea (the Konkan) to about 100 miles south of Bombay city. The chief Districts are Ahmadabad, Broach, Tanna, and Surat. Ahmadabad has important manufactures of silk and cotton cloth, carried on under a system of caste or trade-unions, with trade-guilds regulating wages in those and other crafts. The District is peculiar, in Gujarat, as having nearly half the lands in possession of great holders, or of syndicates or bodies of shareholders, paying a fixed quit-rent to the Government. Broach, an alluvial plain sloping westwards to the Gulf of Cambay, is a fertile and well-tilled region of what is called "black cotton soil", having grain and cotton as its chief products. Tanna (Thana), on the coast, is rich in wheat and millets, oil-seeds, and rice, and has a large production of salt by evaporation. Surat, a wide alluvial plain on the Tapti, is highly cultivated, with rice, millet (*joar*), and other grains, cotton, pulses, and oil-seeds as the staple crops.

The *Central Division*, with six large Districts, Khandesh, Nasik, Ahmadnagar, Poona, Sholapur, and Satara, lies inland above the Ghats, Khandesh being on the high plain of the Tapti. Grain, cotton, fibres, and oil-seeds are very largely produced.

The *Southern Division* includes territory both above and below the Ghats. Of the five Districts, Dharwar is specially rich in cotton, of both the indigenous and the New Orleans varieties; Kaladgi, with much growth of cotton, has numerous weavers of cotton and silk; Kanara (North) is rich in forests, and is the only part of the Presidency abounding in wild animals, including tigers, common and black leopards, hyænas, bears, bison, *sambhar* (deer), and wild hog. Ratnagiri, rugged and rocky, with a dangerous coast about 160 miles in length, is remarkable for its prosperous class of sailors and fishermen, and as a rich recruiting-ground for Sepoys in the Presidency army. Many of the people resort to Bombay for work in the cotton-mills and at other occupations, and Sir W. W. Hunter tells us that "to Ratnagiri's clever, pushing upper classes, to its frugal, teachable middle classes, and to its sober, sturdy, and orderly lower classes, Bombay city owes many of its ablest officials and lawyers, its earliest and cleverest factory-workers, its most useful soldiers and constables, and its cheapest and most trusty supply of unskilled labour". The city at the

present time contains 126,000 persons born in this District of excellent British subjects.

The chief towns of Bombay Presidency are Bombay, Poona, Ahmadabad, Surat, Karachi, Sholapur, Haidarabad (Sind), Broach, and Belgaum. *Bombay*, with its suburbs, covers 22 square miles at the southern end of a string of islands which, by the silting up of channels, and by the construction of breakwaters and causeways, have become so united with the larger island of Salsette on the north, and thence with the mainland, that the whole now virtually form a peninsula, enclosing the finest harbour in India. This last fact, combined with the railways and the Suez Canal, has made the place into the greatest commercial port of the Eastern world, with a population which, in 1891, exceeded 820,000. As the one port of arrival and departure for the mails and for the troopships of the Indian army; as the central point of arrival and departure for Indian travellers; as the greatest cotton-mart in the world, save only New Orleans; as a large manufacturing town that has also a haven displaying, like a Glasgow in the Oriental tropics, the stately steamships of great commercial lines, Bombay is the most important city in all the foreign possessions of Great Britain. In her beautiful position on a deeply indented and hilly coast, adorned with vegetation, she rivals Naples; in the motley aspect and picturesque figures of the people, with a great variety of national types, and dress of vivid colours, she reminds the traveller of Cairo. The public buildings are noble structures, the terminus of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, completed in 1876 at a cost exceeding £300,000, being probably the finest building of its kind in existence. The mercantile quarter of the town has an appearance more European than any other Indian city; the wealthy European and Parsi residents have their elegant villas or bungalows amid luxuriant gardens on Malabar Hill, on the westernmost of two parallel promontories to the south. The place is distinguished by the public spirit, in a philanthropic sense, of some of its citizens in recent years. Among these benefactors may be named Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, a Parsi merchant-prince who died a baronet in 1859, and Sir Albert A. David Sassoon, Bart., Companion of the Star of India, the head of a great firm of Jewish merchants. Recent statistics show that the foreign trade in imports and exports amounted to nearly 40 millions sterling.

Poona, the former capital of the Peishwas whom we have seen in the Maratha (Mahratta) history, is a military cantonment and a residential town, capital of its District, at 1850 feet above sea-level, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 119 miles south-east of Bombay. The waterworks were provided mainly by the liberality of the Parsi baronet named above. The climate is healthy and pleasant, and the steadily growing population was (in 1891) 161,000. *Ahmadabad* (148,000) is the chief city of Gujarat, formerly (in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) one of the most splendid places in Western India. Its manufacture is in silk brocaded and interwoven with gold and silver thread, and there are some steam-factories for cotton, and a large make of pottery, shoes and other leathern goods, and paper. The old architecture is interesting for its combination of Saracenic with Hindu forms. *Surat* (109,000), which we have seen as once the chief commercial town of India and the seat of a "Presidency" in the Company's early days, was probably the most populous place in the country during the eighteenth century. Her fortunes, in commerce, fell with the rapid rise of Bombay, and two great calamities, in close succession, brought her to the verge of ruin. In April, 1837, a three-days' fire destroyed over 9000 houses in the city and suburbs; in the same year, near the close of the rainy season, the Tapti rose to an unprecedented height, flooding the whole place and covering the neighbouring land like a sea. Nearly three-fourths of the city perished through these disasters, but in 1840 came a turn of the tide. A steady growth of trade began, and in 1858 Surat became a railway-centre of Gujarat. The demand for cotton at the time of the American Civil War brought further prosperity, and the sound, well-lighted, paved, and watered roads, the works to protect the city from floods, the improvements in the drainage and markets, and the provision against risks of fire, are now worthy of this wealthy and well-ordered municipality.

Karachi (Kurrachee, 105,000 people), is a flourishing creation of British rule in the latter half of the nineteenth century, with a great commerce, fine harbour-works, and the local institutions of a well-governed British town. The place lies on a bay at the north-western extremity of the Indus delta, protected on the west by a reef ending in Manora Point, crowned by a lighthouse with a fixed light 120 feet above sea-level. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi

Railway runs on to the landing-place for passengers and goods on the island of Kiamari, which is also connected with the town and mainland by Napier Mole, 3 miles in length. Karachi is the seat of rule for the Commissioner of Sind, and has a large military cantonment. The total import and export trade, in 1892–93, exceeded in value 4½ millions sterling. *Sholapur*, on the railway 150 miles south-east of Poona, has 62,000 people, with a large collecting and distributing trade, and a chief industry in weaving, spinning, and dyeing silk and cotton. The *pax Britannica* and the railway have brought prosperity, as well as peace, to a town once exposed to constant raids of lawless men. *Haidarabad* (the *Sind* town, with a population of 58,000), is in a strong natural position about three miles east of the Indus, whither a road leads to a steam-ferry for Kotri on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The fort, covering 36 acres of ground, contains the arsenal of the Province. The place is well provided with water pumped up from the Indus by powerful machinery to a high level near the fort, and thence discharged through iron pipes, by gravitation, to all parts of the town. Haidarabad, the historical capital of Sind, is the centre of all communications, and has excellent manufactures of ornamented silks, lacquered ware, and work in silver and gold. The public buildings include all those usual in first-class European towns. *Broach*, one of the oldest seaports in Western India, long superseded, in its foreign trade, by Surat and Bombay, and once the centre of a great cotton-manufacture, lies on the right bank of the Narbada (Nerbudda), about 30 miles from its mouth. The population (over 37,000), is of the usual mixed character in point of religious belief, with over 20,000 Hindus, half as many Musalmans, and a few hundreds each of Jains and Parsis. *Belgaum* (nearly 23,000 people), chief town of its District, in the south of the Presidency, north-east from Goa, has greatly grown in size and wealth since British occupation in 1818. A large military cantonment and a school for the children of natives of rank give social importance to the place. The chief sanitarium or hill-station of Bombay Presidency is *Mahabaleshwar*, to the south of the Bhor Ghat, in Satara District. It was established in 1828 by Sir John Malcolm, Governor of Bombay, and lies on a plateau of the Western Ghats, at a height of 4500 feet. There is easy access by railway and good roads from Poona and Bombay, and residents have the advantages

of charming scenery, ample scope for exercise on foot and by carriage, good water, and fresh breezes from the sea. The chief season for visitors is from March to June, when the heat is at its worst down in the plains, but the time of greatest natural beauty at Mahabaleshwar is in October, after the heavy rains of the monsoon have ceased, and when the verdure of moss and grass, and of many kinds of ferns, and the hues of countless wild flowers, are at their best. A grand cascade (the Yenna Falls) is then in full play, and the cliffs have their rocks and foliage intermingled with the silvery threads and sun-lit spray of many a stream and lesser waterfall. The civil surgeon is superintendent of this delightful resort, which has the usual establishments, including a large reading-room and library, for the benefit of cultured people. *Matheran*, a smaller hill-sanitarium in the Thana (Tanna) District, lies about 30 miles east of Bombay, at 2460 feet above sea-level, on a wooded plateau with an area of 8 square miles. The main feature of this charming resort of Bombay citizens, discovered and made known in 1850 by Mr. Hugh Malet, of the Bombay Civil Service, lies in its many points or headlands, rocky promontories stretching out into mid-air, and affording noble views of the plain below to the coast-line, with the towers and shipping of Bombay. The sea-breeze gives freshness to the rides through the forest, and the place enjoys an absolute freedom from malaria. The little town is under the special management of the civil surgeon, for the benefit of visitors, and all the appliances of civilization are at work during the two seasons, in October and November, after the rains (244 inches yearly), and from April 1st to the middle of June.

The CENTRAL PROVINCES, with 4 Divisions, each under a Commissioner, and 18 Districts, have an area, under direct British rule, of 86,500 square miles, with a population rather more than 10¾ millions. This region, lying in the very centre of India, with extension eastwards to Orissa, is a wild and picturesque mingling of hill and forest, plain and plateau, little known to geographers until the middle of the nineteenth century. The people are mostly Hindus in faith, with about 300,000 Mohammedans, and 1½ millions holding the primitive beliefs prevalent among the non-Aryan hill-tribes. The cultivated area is mostly under rice, wheat, and other food-grains, and there is also a large growth of cotton and oil-seeds. The largest town, and seat of government,

is *Nagpur* (117,000 people) in the west, with fine tanks and gardens constructed by the Maratha princes, and many fine Hindu temples. It is a place of great and growing trade, with manufactures of fine cotton-stuffs, and many good schools. *Kamthi* (Kamptee, 51,000 people), nine miles to the north-east of Nagpur, is the chief military station. *Jabalpur* (Jubbulpore, 84,000 people) is the chief town of its District, in the north of the Province, and is a beautiful modern place at 1460 feet above sea-level, surrounded by tree-shaded lakes, which have been formed in the many rocky gorges of the hills. The School of Industry employs, in one of the largest tent and carpet factories of India, retired Thugs and Dacoits, with their families, settled here after becoming "approvers" against gangs of murderers and banditti. A very large trade, carried on by the East Indian and Great Indian Peninsula Railways, is done in native raw produce and imported piece-goods, metals, and salt. *Sagar* (Saugor, 45,000 people), in the north-west, nearly 2000 feet above sea-level, is a well-built town on the borders of a fine lake, with many large bathing-ghats and Hindu temples. During the Mutiny of 1857, the town and fort were held for eight months by the British, against the whole surrounding rebel-teeming country, until the victorious arrival of Sir Hugh Rose (Lord Strathnairn). *Raipur* (25,000), in the centre of the Province, has an important trade in grain, lac, cotton, and other produce, and is well placed on the direct line of railway from Bombay to Calcutta. The sanitarium, with a convalescent-depôt for European troops, is *Pachmarhi*, in the hills of the north-west, 2500 feet above the plain.

We need not linger long in little COORG, with her 1583 square miles, and declining population of 173,000. The country and people, to the south-west of Mysore, have been already described in connection with Lord William Bentinck's period of rule, and elsewhere. The mountainous region, clothed with primeval forest or grassy glades, broken by a few valleys under tillage, produces most valuable timber, and a good supply of rice, cardamoms, and coffee. The intelligent people eagerly contribute to the expense of a British education for their children, including some hundreds of girls. These noble mountaineers, "Highlanders" of India, wearing a distinctive national dress, were specially exempted from the disarming Act as a reward for their active loyalty in

1857. Their conduct has been a worthy return for our faithful observance of the assurance conveyed in 1834 by the British Political Agent, Colonel Fraser, that their civil and religious usages would be respected, and that every effort would be made to increase their security, comfort, and happiness. The Raja who surrendered himself in 1834 retired to Benares on a pension from the Government, came to England in 1852, and died there ten years later. His daughter, Princess Victoria Gauramma, became a Christian, with the Queen as one of her sponsors, married a British officer, and died two years after her father. The capital of Coorg, *Merkara* (8400 people), on a table-land 3800 feet above sea-level, contains the mausoleums of Vira Rajendra, the hero of Coorg independence in the struggle against Haidar and Tipu of Mysore, and of Linga Rajendra, his successor, with their favourite queens. The British Government makes an annual grant of £200 to the attendants who keep the tombstones covered with a white cloth, adorned with flowers daily renewed, and lighted by a lamp of undying flame.

The MADRAS Presidency, Government, or Province, with an area of nearly 140,000 square miles, and a population of 35½ millions, is of very irregular shape, extending far up its broader eastern coast-plain; only half as far up its narrower western side, and with the greater portion of the high interior table-land, between the Eastern and Western Ghats, cut out by the now independent State of Mysore. The mountains, rivers, forests, fauna, and crops of this great region have been sufficiently indicated. The crops include, on a large scale, almost all the growths of India except barley and wheat. The people chiefly belong to the five races of the Dravidian stock, non-Aryans dominant, as we have seen, through Southern India. In religion, above 90 per cent are Hindus, and there are about 2 millions of Mohammedans, far more Christians (nearly a million in all) than in any other Province of India, and primitive beliefs among wild hillmen. The number of horned cattle is returned as 8½ millions, and the export of hides and skins approached 2 millions sterling in value. Raw cotton, coffee, and indigo, each exceeding one million in value, were the next in order. The manufactures, chiefly village-industries, include some steam cotton-mills, a great make of salt by evaporation, and the distillation of arrack, a kind

of rum, from sugar of various production from cane, cocoa-nut, and palm. The making of salt, and of spirituous liquors, is a Government monopoly. The sea-borne trade of the whole Presidency, equally shared between Madras and a number of small ports doing a great coasting-traffic, exceeds 20 millions sterling in annual value.

For administrative purposes, there are no Divisions or Commissionerships, but 22 Districts, ranging in area from 3500 to over 17,000 square miles. The chief town and seat of government is *Madras*, the third city of India for importance and population, the latter (1891) amounting to 452,000. Low-lying, on a straight, harbourless coast, with no navigable river for shipping, Madras shows little to the viewer from the sea save the front mercantile structures of the ill-built crowded Black Town, the business-quarter, to the north, with a pier and some harbour-works, and, to the south, a sea-frontage of two miles with some good public buildings on the esplanade. To the west, and south again, the city spreads over a large area (27 square miles), much of it semi-rural, with many villages and plots of tilled ground. The iron pier is useful for landing passengers and goods; the cyclones to which the coast is liable at irregular intervals of years are the chief obstacle to the formation of a durable enclosed harbour. The institutions, which are those of a great capital, include a fine Observatory, which is the time-keeper and a chief meteorological department for the whole of India. *Trichinopoli* (90,000 people), chief town of its District, lies on the right bank of the river Kaveri (Cauvery), about 56 miles from the sea. The Trichinopoli Rock, a mass of gneiss rising abruptly to the height of 273 feet above the level of the streets at its foot, is a striking object, crowned with a temple, in the midst of the town. The well-known strong-flavoured cigars, and gold jewellery, are the chief manufactures. There are above 8000 native Roman Catholics, and several Protestant mission-stations. *Tanjore* (54,000), a famous and interesting ancient capital, has a temple and other monuments of Hindu art, including a great pagoda, of the highest order in that style of work. Artistic manufactures in silk, jewellery, and copper-ware are carried on. *Madura* (87,000) another ancient capital of renown, is the Benares of Southern India for its religious associations. The Pagoda is a magnificent

structure, 847 feet by 744, having a "Hall of One Thousand Pillars" (997, in fact) richly adorned with paintings and sculptures. There are other splendid native buildings, including a palace in the Hindu-Saracenic style. *Bellary* (59,000), in a central inland position, about 300 miles north-west of Madras, is a first-class civil and military station, with a double line of fortifications, an impregnable citadel, and a strong garrison of British and Native troops.

Calicut (66,000), a port on the west coast, is the head-quarters of the wealthy and populous District of Malabar, and steadily progresses, with an import and export trade, exceeding in value a million sterling yearly. *Negapatam* (59,000), on the coast due east of Trichinopoli, is another large and flourishing port. *Utakamand* (Ootacamund), the administrative head-quarters of the Nilgiri Hills District, has now a population exceeding 12,000, of whom nearly one-fourth were Christians, a fact due to the place being the chief sanitarium of Madras Presidency. This delightful retreat from the heated plains, now the summer centre of the Madras Government, was discovered in 1819 by two Madras civilians who were pursuing a band of tobacco-smugglers. The first house was built, two years later, by the Collector of the District, and a town slowly grew on the plateau, situated at 7200 feet above sea-level. The amphitheatre in which the buildings stand is surrounded by stately hills, and has an artificial lake nearly a mile and a half in length. In this region, six mountains rise above 8000 feet, including the Dodabetta Peak, already mentioned, the culminating point of Southern India, 8760 feet above the sea. The vegetation of the temperate zone is fostered by the climate into a tropical luxuriance of growth whereby the tender plants of Europe become hardy shrubs, and the hedgerows are composed of fuchsias and other garden-flowers of Great Britain. The villas of the European residents look down upon the lake from their nooks on the hills, and the wide range of the plateau, in its downs and great grassy tracts, affords scope to the people for riding, driving, bicycling and tricycling, cricket, polo, and other athletic exercises of their far-distant British relatives and friends. An excellent club, a pack of fox-hounds, a newspaper, a public library, the fine Botanical Gardens, the Hobart Park, a branch of the Bank of Madras, hotels, schools, churches, hospitals, and shops, meet all the reasonable wants of the permanent residents from November to February, and

of the European visitors who flock to Utakamand between March and June.

The NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES and OUDH have a total area of 107,500 square miles, and a population now exceeding 47 millions, of which Oudh claims 24,200 square miles and above 12½ millions of inhabitants, the densest population in all India, reaching an average of 522 per square mile. The northern portion includes the Himalaya region for 180 miles between the Punjab and Nipal (Nepaul), nearly all the rest of the Province consisting of the alluvial plain of the upper Ganges and its tributaries, rich soil with products that have been already indicated. In religion, over 86 per cent of the people are Hindus, and 13 per cent Mohammedans, who are especially numerous in the Divisions of Rohilkhand, Benares, and Meerut.

The NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES have seven Divisions, Meerut (Merath), Rohilkhand (Rohilcund), Agra, Jhansi, Allahabad, Benares, and Kumaun, the last consisting of the Himalaya region and the swampy tract (Tarai) at the foot of the mountains. These Divisions contain 37 Districts, each under an officer styled "Magistrate and Collector", usually a member of the Covenanted Civil Service, and directly representing the Executive Government in all departments—police, revenue, criminal and revenue cases of law, sanitation, municipal work, roads, and forestry. He is responsible to the Commissioner of his Division, who is again under the control of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province. No part of India contains so many famous cities, the chief being Benares, Agra, Allahabad, Cawnpur, Bareli (Bareilly), Meerut (Merath), Farukhabad, Shahjahanpur, Mirzapur, Moradabad, Saharanpur, Aligarh, Gorakhpur, and Muttra. Each of these towns is the administrative centre of its District, while Meerut, Agra, Allahabad, Jhansi, and Benares are also the capitals of their own Divisions, and Bareilly of Rohilkhand. The populations given are according to the census of 1891.

Benares (220,000), the famous sacred city of the Hindu faith, whose long line of picturesque *ghats* (landing and burning stairs) and splendid temples is familiar to all from illustrations, stands on the left (northern) bank of the Ganges, 420 miles north-west of Calcutta. The streets are crowded with bustling traders and artisans, pilgrims, camels, horses, asses, and sacred bulls, overlooked

by temples, palaces, and mosques that line the narrow labyrinths of traffic. Above three-fourths of the people are Hindus, greatly devoted to prayer and to ablutions in the sacred stream by whose side constant groups of loungers gaze on the *fakirs* and other ash-strewn nearly nude fanatical ascetics aiming at Heaven through self-made misery on earth. The present city is modern, dating only from the reign of Akbar (1556–1605), but extensive ruins lie to the north, encumbering the site of olden Benares. The grandeur of the view from the river is due to the perpendicular cliff, 100 feet in height, crowned by lofty pinnacle-tipped or towered structures, with the long flights of the *ghats* descending to the water's edge. The wealth of the city is largely derived from the visits of pilgrims of rank, attended by large retinues. European civilization is represented by Queen's College, with nearly 1000 students; missions of various Christian bodies; the Benares Institute, devoted to science, literature, and social progress, chiefly supported by native gentlemen; and the valuable Carmichael Library. The noble architecture of *Agra*, on the right bank of the river Jumna, 300 miles above its junction with the Ganges, has been described in a former section of this work. The population (169,000), of whom about two-thirds are Hindus, with 40,000 Mohammedans, have manufactures of pipe-stems, shoes, and gold lace, and of the beautiful inlaid mosaic work so wonderfully wrought in the Taj-Mahal. *Allahabad* (175,000), on the left bank of the Jumna, at its confluence with the Ganges, is the chief seat of government for the North-West Provinces. The British quarter, well arranged with broad tree-planted roads, has many fine residences lying in large *compounds* or parks. The East Indian Railway crosses the Jumna by a splendid bridge, and the Grand Trunk Road passes through the city. A scene of carnage, arson, and rapine occurred in 1857, when the rabble rose with the mutineers of the garrison on June 6th, but were quickly subdued (June 11th–15th) after the arrival of General Neill with some Madras troops, and the turning of the fort-guns on the native town. Havelock passed through the place shortly afterwards, on his victorious march to Cawnpur. The spacious fort, changed by modern engineers from its olden form of towering masonry, occupies the point of confluence of the two rivers. The Muir Central College is a great educational institution, and, among other fine public buildings, the Mayo Memorial and Town Hall is

conspicuous. Allahabad, with no special trade or manufacture, is a place of great railway-traffic in goods, and a large mart for the purchase and sale of produce.

Cawnpur (189,000), the place of evil memory, is a modern town, of little architectural interest, on the right bank of the Ganges, 130 miles above Allahabad. The Memorial Church covers the site of General Wheeler's entrenchments in 1857; the Memorial Gardens, of 50 acres, with the fatal and famous well and its beautiful monument, line the bank of the river. The Ganges, the Ganges Canal, two railways (the East Indian, and a branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand), and the Grand Trunk Road (Calcutta to Delhi) afford ample communication for great manufactures in leather and cotton, and a large collecting-trade in grain. *Bareilly* (121,000) lies in Rohilkhand, on the Ramganga river, 96 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. The chief buildings, including a strong fort, are modern. The place has no special importance in trade; upholstery and furniture are well and cheaply made. A Government college, and some high-class schools, exist. Mohammedans form nearly half of the population, and in 1871 serious riots occurred between fanatical followers of the rival religions. *Meerut* (120,000) nearly half-way between the Jumna and the Ganges, in the north-west of the Province, is a very ancient place, revived into its modern size and importance as a great military post under British rule, famous for the first outbreak of rebellion in 1857. A powerful British garrison holds this head-quarters of the Division in which it stands. *Farukhabad* (78,000), near the Ganges, 83 miles north-west of Cawnpur, is a handsome well-built town, founded early in the eighteenth century. Trade is reviving since its connection with the railway-system. *Shahjahanpur* (78,500), another scene of mutiny in 1857, founded in 1647, during the reign of the emperor whose name it bears, is on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with some manufacture of sugar and rum. *Mirzapur* (84,000), on the south (right) bank of the Ganges, 56 miles below Allahabad, has yielded to Cawnpur the first place in Northern India as a mart for grain and cotton. The river-front is made picturesque by Hindu temples, mosques, *ghats* or flights of stairs, and private houses richly carved and otherwise adorned. There is a large manufacture of shell-lac, and a considerable trade in stone, and in the general vegetable produce of the beautiful and fertile

region. *Moradabad* (73,000), on the river Ramganga, and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, gives employment to some thousands of artisans in metal-work, notably in the inlaying of brass and tin.

Saharanpur (63,000), on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and on a branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand, has a large trade in sugar, molasses, and grain, with fine Government botanical gardens, and a horse-fair and agricultural show. *Aligarh* (61,500), with the fort captured by Lord Lake in 1803, is on the railway 84 miles south-east of Delhi. The Aligarh Institute, founded by a native of the Civil Service in 1864, has for its chief object the translation of modern scientific and historical works into the vernacular tongue, with a bi-weekly journal in English and Urdu, a good library, and a reading-room for British and native newspapers. *Gorakhpur* (63,500), on the river Rapti, in the north-east of the Province, has a considerable trade in timber and grain. *Muttra* (61,000) on the right bank of the Jumna about 30 miles above Agra, is an ancient historical place, sacked by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1017, and having its Hinduism persecuted, with much destruction of temples and shrines, under the Mughal rulers Shah Jahan and Aurangzeb. There are noble Mohammedan mosques, richly decorated houses built of fine white stone and wood, and a splendid masonry tank with high walls, and steps rising fifty feet above the water, all over-shadowed by trees. The place is still a great resort of Hindu devotees, with pilgrims flocking yearly to the festivals. *Hardwar*, on the right bank of the Ganges, about 40 miles north-east of Saharanpur, is a small place notable as a very ancient town of Hindu pilgrimage, venerated as the spot where holy fertilizing Ganges, issuing from a gorge in the hills, passes out upon the plains. Worshippers of Buddha, Siva, and Vishnu have alike resorted to this sacred little town, where pilgrims struggle to be the first to plunge into the water at the bathing-ghât, after the priests have announced the propitious time. In a less romantic and more practical way, Hardwar is important as one of the chief horse-fairs in Northern India, visited by Government-agents for the purchase of cavalry-remounts.

Rurki, a town of fully 16,000 people, has sprung up within the last half-century, about 20 miles east of Saharanpur, from a little mud-built village near the spot where the Ganges Canal is carried

over a lofty viaduct. The head-quarters of the canal workshops and foundry were established there, and population flowed to the spot. In 1847, the Thomason Civil Engineering College, for preparing natives, Eurasians, and Europeans to deal with public works in India, was started on a career which, in 1882, gave it about 100 regular students, and made it the most important institution of its class in India, with a staff of the highest order of ability at the source which supplies the men who execute and maintain the great public works that in India are so specially essential to material progress and prosperity, and even to the preservation of life in men and cattle. There are special classes for training soldiers chosen from British regiments in India. The chief *sanitaria* or hill-stations for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh are *Masuri* (Mussooree , *Landaur*, and *Naini Tal*. *Mussooree* and *Landaur*, on the Himalayan slopes in almost the extreme north-west of the province, really make one town, on the crest of a peak that reaches 7500 feet above sea-level. The population, with about 4000 permanent residents, fluctuates with the season, which culminates in September. Mussooree has a summer home for about 100 soldiers' children, and the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway Company maintain a school for the families of their European working-staff. At Landaur, a convalescent-station for European troops was established in 1827, and the summer invalids average 300. *Naini Tal* is in the District of Kumaon, in the north-east of the Province, beautifully placed on the banks of a small lake among the spurs of the Himalayas, at 6400 feet above sea-level. The little town, with a minimum population of about 8000, is the head-quarters of the Government during the hot season. The scenery of the surrounding hills, with distant views of snowy peaks far above four miles in height, is beyond all praise. The one incident of a striking nature in the history of Naini Tal is the terrible cyclone and rainstorm of September 18th, 1880, which caused a landslip destroying the lives of nearly 150 people, including 42 Europeans, with the wreck of the public Assembly Rooms and other buildings to the value of £20,000. That sum has since been expended on a drainage-system and other protective works by the municipal authorities. The convalescent depôt for European troops, established in 1859, has room for about 350 men.

Oudh, with 4 Divisions, of Lucknow, Sitapur, Faizabad, and

Rae Bareli, and 12 Districts, occupies one vast alluvial plain, with only 6 per cent of the ground unfit for tillage, and is watered by the Ganges, Gumti, Gogra, and Rapti, with their many tributary streams. The dense population is spread through over 24,000 villages and small towns, mainly engaged in agriculture, entirely feeding their own teeming millions, and having a large surplus of produce for export, now much developed by the opening of railways. The pacification and settlement of 1858–59 left about three-fifths of the land in possession of the chieftains (*talukdars*) on condition of loyal conduct, and of punctual payment of the revenue assessed and of the wages of village-officials. A new right of property, unknown both to Hindu and to Mohammedan law, was then conferred by the British Government, including the power of alienation by will, and succession by primogeniture to intestate estates. Two-fifths of the territory is in the hands of a class intermediate between the cultivators and the chiefs. There are no large manufactures, the chief industries of a wholesale character being indigo factories and a paper-mill at Lucknow. The country has derived vast benefit from British rule in freedom from oppression, the improvement of communications, the spread of education amongst a people of keen natural intelligence, and the establishment of a judicial system, securing life and property, which did not exist in the days when Oudh was a native kingdom.

The only great towns are *Lucknow* and *Faizabad*. *Lucknow* (273,000), the capital city of Oudh, lies on both banks of the river Gumti, about 40 miles north-east of Cawnpur. The place is quite modern, but already comes fourth in population amongst the cities of British India. This centre of modern Indian life, a crowded Oriental town of picturesque appearance, with its towers, cupolas, and minarets, at a distant view, but with little real architectural merit, is a leading place of native fashion, and a chief school of native music, grammar, and Musalman theology. British rule, since the terrible days of the Mutiny, has bestowed useful public works in the way of hospitals, schools, well-made roads, wider and straighter streets, a sanitary system, and convenient markets or *bazars*. The one grand architectural display of Lucknow consists of the stupendous Imambara, a single hall erected in 1784 by Asaf-ud-daula, the fourth Nawab of Oudh, with the Jama Masjid or "cathedral mosque", the Husainabad Imambara or Mausoleum,

and the Rumi Darwaza, a massive old isolated gateway. The Imambara of Asaf-ud-daula became the mausoleum of its founder, and, standing within the walls of the fort, is used as an arsenal for the British garrison. The famous Residency, left in ruins as a memorial of the heroic defence in 1857, stands high above the Gumti, and has a fine appearance amidst beds of gorgeous flowers, a noble banian-tree, and the feathery foliage of lofty bamboos screening the graveyard that contains the bodies of 2000 Europeans who died as victims or as conquerors in the days of mingled trial and triumph nearly forty years ago. The city stands on a large area of ground (13 square miles), having broader and finer streets than most Indian towns, and containing a great number of royal garden-houses, pavilions, town-houses of the Oudh nobles, temples, palaces, and mosques. Since 1858, the ground has been much cleared for military purposes in controlling the most turbulent and seditious town-population in the whole of India. The fort, with guns ever loaded and pointed at the densest quarters of the city, is surrounded by a glacis half a mile in width. Three military roads, radiating from this point, cut through the heart of the native quarter, often passing at a height of 30 feet above the flanking streets. A powerful garrison, including a large force of British infantry, cavalry, and artillery, is maintained in the fort and in the cantonments, covering nearly 12 square miles, which lie south-east of the town, cut off from it by a canal. The British soldiers are not permitted, from regard to their own safety, to enter the native quarter singly, and on one day of the year the whole garrison, horse, foot, and guns, with drums beating and colours flying, makes a grand march through the city, with an imposing display of military power. The river Gumti is crossed by four bridges, two of them built since the British annexation in 1856. The railway and the river conduct an extensive trade in country-produce and European goods, and the city itself has extensive manufactures of muslin and other fabrics of the loom, of gold and silver brocade, needle-embroidery on velvet and cotton with gold thread and coloured silks, glass-work, railway-stock, and moulding in clay. The educational institutions include the Canning College, partly maintained by the *talukdars*; the Martinière College for the children of soldiers; and schools supported by British and American Missions. *Faizabad* (79,000), chief town of its District, lies on the

left bank of the river Gogra, about 80 miles east of Lucknow. The place forms one town with the adjacent Ajodhya, on the ruin-strewn site of one of the largest and most splendid of ancient Indian cities, eulogized in the earlier part of the *Ramayana* epic. There is a military cantonment with two regiments of foot and a battery of Royal Artillery, and an active trade is done in country-produce and imported goods.

The PUNJAB, last on our list of British Indian Provinces, save Burma, is by name "the region of five rivers", the Sutlej, Beas, Ravi, Chenab, and Jehlam (Jhelum), all flowing south-west towards the Indus, into which, after junction with each other, their waters are ultimately poured. The portion of this great territory under direct British rule has an area of 110,660 square miles, with a dense population of nearly 21 millions. Of the people, by an exception in the British provinces, 10½ millions, or over one-half, are Mohammedans, with about 7½ millions of Hindus, and 1,200,000 Sikhs. Under the rule of the Lieutenant-Governor are 10 Divisions—Delhi, Hissar, Ambala (Umballa), Jalandhar (Jullundur), Amritsar (Umritsur), Lahore, Rawal Pindi, Multan (Mooltan), Derajat, and Peshawar—each under a Commissioner, sub-divided into 32 Districts. The north-east, west, and north-west are made mountainous by the Himalayas, the Sulaiman chain, and minor ranges and groups of hills; in the south-east, some low spurs of the Aravallis break the monotony of the river-plains which form by far the larger portion of the Province. Alluvial soil prevails throughout, largely fertilized, as we have seen, by irrigation, but in the west only supplying grass for herds of cattle and camels. The products of the soil have been already noticed. The eastern plains, the granary of the Punjab, contain the most fertile, wealthy, and populous districts of the whole country. Great progress has been made, under British rule, in commerce and industry, largely favoured by the opening of railways and improved irrigation. In the centre and east, the Sikhs, in spite of their inferior numbers, form the most important social and political element, as including the mass of the gentry, representing the dominant class at the time of annexation in 1849. In the north (the Himalayan region) and the east, caste is the social unit of the people; on the western plains and the Indus frontier, the land-owning classes regard the tribe as the distinctive feature for social rule and custom. Most of the

workers are connected with the tillage of land and care of animals; of these, there are rather more than 3 millions, while manufactures —textile, mineral, and otherwise—and commerce employed about half that number. The trade includes traffic, on the north and west, with Kashmir, Yarkand, Central Asia, and Kabul; a vast and growing commerce with Europe by way of Bombay; and internal commerce with Sind, Rajputana, and the Provinces to the east.

In dealing with the chief towns, we begin with *Lahore*, as the capital and seat of government both for the whole Province and its own District. This great city (177,000 people) stands in about the centre of the Punjab, a mile south of the Ravi, amid the ruins of the ancient town, which covered a larger area than the modern. At its height of splendour, in the best days of the Mughal Empire, under Akbar, Jahangir, Shah Jahan, and Aurangzeb, the place declined with the rise of Jahanabad or modern Delhi, and at last became a mere heap of ruins. The revival came under Ranjit Singh, and British rule has created a new and flourishing town. The Mosque of Aurangzeb, with plain white marble domes and minarets, the mausoleum of Ranjit Singh, and the old Mughal palace, standing in a line facing an open grassy plain, give a fine architectural effect. The modern institutions include the Punjab University, the Oriental College, some other colleges, the Medical School, the Law School, Veterinary School, High School, the Mayo Hospital, and the Museum. Five miles away lies the military cantonment of Mian Mir (Meean Meer), the head-quarters of the Division, with a garrison of all arms numbering over 3500 men. Thorough drainage and a supply of excellent water are among recent British boons to the people of Lahore. *Delhi* (192,500), on the right bank of the Jumna, has been described as regards its olden architectural glories. Since 1857 most of the Imperial palace has been removed to make room for barracks. The most remarkable monument among the ruins of former capitals that now spread round Delhi to the distance of 20 miles is the Kutab Minar, designed as a muezzin's (mosque-crier's) tower for calling the Moslem people to prayer. It is the tallest column in the world, still rising to the height of 238 feet, after losing the topmost part of its cupola by an earthquake in 1803. The elegant structure, of five storeys, inclosing a spiral staircase, tapers up from a diameter of 47 feet at the base to about 9 feet at

the summit. This noble tower or pillar stands 11 miles from the modern city. The Delhi Institute and the Delhi College, the latter supported by Mohammedan gentlemen, are among the chief buildings. The transit trade between Calcutta and Bombay and Rajputana is very large; the manufactures are fine muslin, filagree-work, glazed and carved work, and weaving of shawls.

Peshawar (84,000), on the frontier, at 276 miles from Lahore and 190 miles from Cabul, is a modern town on the site of a former capital. It is the chief town of its Division and District, with fine fruit-gardens in the suburbs; a great trans-frontier import trade in various produce, with horses, donkeys, mules, and the sheep-skin coats called *poshtins*; and an export of grain, salt, oil-seeds, sugar, and oil. The cantonment, two miles west of the town, has a total population rather more than 20,000, including a powerful garrison. The residents there have a race-course, cricket-ground, and public garden, and the proverbial unhealthiness of the place has been much lessened by marsh-draining, tree-planting, pure water, and other sanitary measures. *Rawal Pindi* (74,000 people), a modern town in the north, a few miles from the foot of the Himalayas, is a great military station, well supplied with all needful buildings and institutions for the comfort and welfare of a large European population. It is the head-quarters of its Division and District for civil and military affairs, and the centre of the management of the Punjab Northern State Railway. The most modern part of the town is very spacious, clean, and well planted with trees. *Amritsar* (Umritsur, 137,000 people) lies 32 miles east of Lahore, and is a place of a great, but, since the opening of the railway through to Peshawar, a declining transit-trade. In 1881 the population reached 152,000, thus showing a remarkable decrease in 1891. The Central Asian commerce is, in fact, being transferred to direct dealing with Calcutta and Bombay. The place is notable as the religious capital of the Sikhs, with a sacred tank or pool in which stands the splendid temple of their faith. The special and an important manufacture is that of Kashmir shawls, made by a large colony of the native workers from that country. *Ambala* (Umballa, 79,000), on the railway at the east of the Punjab, where it intersects the Grand Trunk Road, is a great grain-mart, with a strong garrison in the cantonment four miles to the south-east. *Multan* (Mooltan, 74,500 people), in the south-west of the Punjab, four miles from the Chenab,

is a town of great historical interest as being on the site of the capital of the *Malli*, conquered by Alexander the Great. It has appeared in the modern history of India above given. The town is a great trade-centre, collecting produce from the Punjab for transmission to Karachi, and carrying on a large traffic with Afghanistan by way of Kandahar. The manufactures are in silk and cotton weaving, carpets, glazed pottery and enamel work, and country shoes. *Jalandhar* (Jullundur, 66,000), in the east of the Punjab, on the plain between the Beas and the Sutlej, occupies the site of a very ancient city, mentioned in the *Maha Bharata*. It stands on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, between Ambala and Amritsar, and has a considerable trade in country produce and English piece-goods. The American Presbyterian Mission maintains excellent schools, with over 700 pupils of all castes and creeds. A cantonment, with a garrison of two regiments and one battery, lies four miles from the town, near the line of railway. *Sialkot* (55,000), 72 miles north of Lahore, is a well-built town, of steady growth and rising commerce since its connection with the Punjab Northern State Railway. More than half the inhabitants are Mohammedans, with a handsome ancient shrine; the Sikhs have a great annual fair at the shrine of their first Guru (high-priest), Baba Nanak, the founder of the sect. The cantonment near the town has a fine public garden, racquet-courts, tennis-courts, library and reading-room, and is spaciously laid out, with tree-lined roads, on a ridge having good natural drainage.

The chief sanitaria (hill-stations) of the Punjab are *Simla*, *Kasauli*, and *Murree*. The Simla District (in Ambala Division), though it has only an area, in its detached plots of territory encircled by the lands of native chiefs, of 81 square miles, is of great importance as containing the administrative head-quarters, for a large part of the year, of the supreme (Viceregal) Government of India. Lying on the southern spurs of the great central chain of the Western Himalayas, between the basins of the Indus and the Ganges, as represented by the Sutlej and the Jumna, amid hills clothed with forests of the grand *deodar* (Himalayan Cedar) and with rhododendrons of the brightest bloom, the region presents scenery of rare beauty, variety, and grandeur, comprising the Ambala plains to the south, the massive mountain named Chor (12,000 feet) near at hand, huge ravines leading down into deep

valleys, and, to the north, range after range of tangled mountain-chains, ending in a curve of snow-clad peaks, from four to five miles in height, whose highest pure-white tracts are seen glowing with the rosy hues of sunset long after the darkness of sub-tropical night has settled down upon the dwellers at Simla. The climate of this district has been found to be excellent for Europeans, with a mean annual temperature of 55 degrees, and an annual rainfall of about 70 inches. Many small sanitaria and cantonments have therefore been established, and the numerous schools include the Lawrence Military Asylum for soldiers' children, Bishop Cotton's School, a Roman Catholic Female Orphanage, the American Presbyterian Mission School, the Punjab Girls' and the Mayo Industrial Girls' institutions. The town of Simla, at a height of 7100 feet, has a minimum resident population of fully 13,000, a number since permanently increased, with a large influx yearly between July and October. The first dwelling for Europeans in this locality was a thatched wooden cottage, erected in 1819 by Lieutenant Ross, a Political Agent for the Hill States. Three years later his successor, Lieutenant Kennedy, built a substantial house, and in 1826 the place had become a little hill-station for officials from the Punjab plains and other quarters. In 1827, the Governor-General, Lord Amherst, after a progress through the North-West, spent the summer at Simla, and the little town then became a regular place of resort, during the hot season, for the highest officials, and the summer-capital of the Indian Government since 1864. The bungalows are spread along a crescent-shaped ridge, concave towards the south, stretching for about six miles from east to west, and on adjacent hills. The buildings include a fine new Viceregal residence and business structures for the Supreme Government and the District-officials, with shops, banks, churches, a club, hospital, dispensary, town-hall, the chief schools above named, and two breweries in the valley. *Kasauli*, a cantonment and convalescent depôt formed in 1844–45, lies 32 miles south-west of Simla, on the crest of a hill 6300 feet above sea-level, with a minimum population rather more than 3000, much increased during the summer months. *Murree*, on a hill-ridge 7500 feet above the sea, is in Rawal Pindi District, almost at the extreme north of the Punjab. In 1853, barracks were erected for convalescent troops, and the station soon became the chief northern sanitarium of the Province,

drawing large numbers of visitors from all the north-western region. The scenery resembles that of Simla, but the place also commands a view of deep valleys studded with villages and cultivated fields. The town is provided with all needful buildings, ecclesiastical, commercial, and official, with Assembly Rooms, Club, Dispensary, and the Lawrence Memorial Asylum for the sons and daughters of European soldiers. A flourishing brewery supplies British residents with the sound beer nowhere more relished than in sub-tropical India.

The chief points of British Administration in India, as settled by the Act of 1858 and subsequent statutes, have been given in the history for that period, and we have seen how the Provinces, under Lieutenant-Governors or Chief Commissioners, have Divisions ruled by Commissioners, again split up into Districts each under the control of its special officer. Madras and Bombay Presidencies are but little interfered with by the "Governor-General-in-Council", as the Viceroy is officially styled in Indian affairs, and are further distinguished by having each a special army and Commander-in-Chief, an Executive and a Legislative Council, and a Governor appointed direct from England. Bengal, administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, has had a Legislative Council since 1861, but her immediate ruler is controlled by no Executive Council. The North-Western Provinces have had a Legislative Council since 1887; the Punjab is not yet thus provided. The Central Provinces, Assam, Ajmere, Berar, and Coorg, are under the immediate rule of the Viceroy. The "Regulation" and "non-Regulation" systems of rule, already noticed, have reference to the old Regulations, or laws and judicial rules of practice which were in force prior to the establishment of the system of administration in accordance with Acts of Parliament. The method of rule has been adapted to the requirements of the territory ruled; a wider discretion being allowed to officials in financial, judicial, and other affairs in non-Regulation Districts, where the condition of the people, and their less amenable or civilized character, render the enforcement of strict rules of procedure less desirable. As a case in point, Bombay Presidency, with its 24 Districts, has 17 administered on Regulation principles, and 7, in Sind and Gujarat, ruled as non-Regulation Districts by officers who may be either military, covenanted, or uncovenanted

servants of the Crown. In such Districts, also, judicial and executive functions are, in a great degree, placed in the same hands, and there are no "High Courts", "Judges", or other special apparatus for the administration of civil and criminal justice. The Central Provinces and Assam are wholly non-Regulation, and Districts administered on the same system are found also in Bengal and the North-Western Provinces.

Throughout British India, in Regulation and non-Regulation territory, the unit of administration is the District officer, called "Collector-Magistrate" in the former, and "Deputy-Commissioner" in the latter. He is the chief executive officer, the responsible head of affairs. It is he who, to the vast majority of the people, knowing nothing of, and so caring nothing for, the mighty "Viceroy", or "Governor", or "Lieutenant-Governor", represents alike the majesty, justice, good faith, and beneficence of British sway. It is he who, on behalf of the teeming peasantry of India, keeps the machine of government at work, and its efficiency depends, in a very large degree, upon his intellectual and moral character. Great energy is needed for the successful discharge of his multifarious and responsible duties in collecting revenue, deciding disputes and hearing plaints, and superintending the management of police and jails, roads and bridges, sanitation, education, and other matters. His personal energy, tact, sound judgment, kindness, and courtesy, or the lack, in any degree, of such qualities, are of great importance as concerning both his direct relations with native subjects and the work of his European and Native staff filling the posts of deputy-collectors, assistant-magistrates, and offices subordinate to these. It must be remembered that the Districts, of which British India, including Burma, contains 250, have an average area of 3860 square miles, with an average population of about 880,000. In other words, the District-officer or Collector-Magistrate has charge of a region like a very large and populous English county or French department, and needs, for complete success in his official career, the knowledge and qualities of an accountant, a lawyer, a surveyor, a ready writer of State-papers, and a social reformer in close touch with the masses of the people, and no small acquaintance with the principles and practice of the economist, the engineer, and the scientific, skilled agriculturist. In every Province, the whole administration

is directed by the Secretariat, or central bureau, which issues orders to and receives reports from the officers of Divisions and Districts. The Secretariat of the Supreme Government at Calcutta and Simla has the following seven branches—Foreign Affairs, Home Affairs, Revenue and Agriculture, Finance, Military Affairs, Public Works, Legislation. The Provincial Secretariats have the same kind of scheme, but the Secretaries vary in number from one to four.

We cannot rightly apprehend the nature of British government in India, without reference to its essential character as a paternal, non-constitutional system, a "benevolent despotism" that undertakes, on behalf of the ruled, many duties which, in constitutional countries of advanced civilization, are left to local bodies and to the enterprise of private persons or of Companies. We turn to the administration of Lord Mayo, and find his express recognition of the fact that "for generations to come, the progress of India in wealth and civilization must be directly dependent on her progress in agriculture. Agricultural products must long continue the most important of her exports, and the future development of Indian commerce will mainly depend upon the improvement in the quantity and quality of existing agricultural staples, or on the introduction of new products which shall serve as materials for manufacture and for use in the industrial arts". It was in connection with this subject that Lord Mayo founded a "department of knowledge", and concentrated into one combined office of general registration every branch of inquiry into India and its people, occupations, and products—the facts concerning revenue-survey, topography of inland districts and coasts, mineral wealth, agricultural productions, commercial capabilities, meteorology, details of rural life, and many other matters. The improved staple of cotton, the growth of tea, cinchona, and coffee, have all been largely due to the efforts of the Indian Government. The State, in India, is not only the chief landlord of the soil from which a large part of the revenue is derived, but the guardian of forests, a great mineral proprietor, a creator and maintainer of irrigation-channels, roads, railways, public buildings, hospitals, and schools. Besides being railway-owners on a very large scale, the British Indian authorities are manufacturers of opium and salt. As regards the drug which has so long been anything but

a sedative to those who discuss it in connection with Indian finance and the effects of opium on those who, in India and China, indulge in its use, we note that the poppy is now allowed to be cultivated only in Bengal, the North-West Provinces, and Oudh, and in parts of the Punjab. The produce, all of which is sold to the Government at a fixed price, is sent to the Government factories at Patna and Ghazipur, on the Ganges, to be prepared for the market, and the chests of opium thus manufactured are sold in Calcutta, at monthly auctions, for exportation to China. Salt, which pays so large a portion of Indian revenue, is made by the Government at great brine-works on the Rann of Cutch, on the coast of Gujarat, and in many small sea-salt factories, leased to private persons, in the Konkan, on the coast of Bombay Presidency below the Ghats. On the eastern coast, from Cape Comorin to Orissa, the salt procured by evaporation conducted by private persons is also made under Government supervision. The product is brought to the State depôt, where it is paid for at a certain rate. The price to the consumer in Madras Presidency, in January, 1888, was about 3*s.* (at the reduced value of 1*s.* 3*d.* per rupee) per *maund* of 82⅓ lbs. The salt-duty, now equalized throughout continental India, is about 4*s.* per cwt. at the reduced value of the rupee.

The extent of municipal government in India is a fact little known to British readers. Happily devised, in recent years, to relieve District officers of a portion of their arduous labours, these bodies, greatly developed, as we have seen, by the Local Self-Government Acts of 1882–84, under the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon, perform the duties of like local governments in this country, raising money by rates, and expending it mainly on the police, the roads, the markets, and sanitary measures. Not only are all large towns now provided with municipal institutions, but by a recent return there were 761 municipal towns, with a population exceeding 15 millions, in the India which, including Native States, then contained only 222 towns with a population exceeding 20,000 people. The development of the elective principle has been such that recently, out of 10,585 members of 758 municipalities (excluding the three Presidency towns) there were 5848 elected, against 4737 nominated or *ex-officio* members. In the 107 municipalities of the North-West Provinces, there were 1218 elected

members out of 1535. In the 145 municipal towns of Bengal there were 1154 to 944. In Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay 138 municipal commissioners out of 180 were elected by the ratepayers, and, of the total members of these municipal bodies in India, over 8000 are known to be natives. The rural districts have, in many cases, local boards in charge of schools, hospitals, and roads, with a large proportion of elected members. Apart from the village watchmen, the regular police of all kinds in British India at present number 150,600 officers and men; the 746 prisons admitted yearly during recent years nearly half a million; the two places of transportation for the worse criminals of all British India are the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, with a daily average of nearly 12,000 convicts. The actual values of money in India are the *Pie* = $\frac{1}{3}$ Farthing; the *Pice* (3 *Pie*) = 1 Farthing; the *Anna* (4 *Pice* or 12 *Pie*) = about 1*d.*; the *Rupee* (16 Annas) = 1*s.*; and the *Gold Mohar* (16 Rupees) = about 16*s.* In sums of money, 100,000 rupees make a "lac"; 10 million rupees, or 100 lacs, are called a "crore". In weights and measures, the *Maund* of Bengal (of 40 *seers*) = 82$\frac{1}{3}$ lbs. avoirdupois; of Bombay, 28 lbs.; of Madras, 25 lbs. The *Candy* (of 20 *maunds*) = 24$\frac{1}{3}$ bushels. The *Tola* = 180 grains; the *Guz* of Bengal = 36 inches. An Indian Act ("Governor-General in Council") of 1871 makes the *seer* the primary standard of weight, as equal to the French *Kilogramme* (2$\frac{1}{5}$ lbs. avoirdupois); for measures of capacity, the unit was to be a measure containing a *seer* of water at its maximum density, weighed in a vacuum. For all such measures of capacity and for weights decimal subdivisions were to be employed.

Throughout its history, India had, in Hindu and Mohammedan times, some system of popular education, not arranged or maintained by the State. Every large village has had its schools for children of decent people. British rule has brought with it a regular system of public instruction, organized by the State, well inspected, and assisted by grants. Some of the earlier Governor-Generals strove to supply culture for the sons of native gentlemen, but the Christian missionaries were the first to study the native tongues with a view to vernacular education for the mass of the people. The establishment of the present system in 1854 has been mentioned, in connection with the famous Despatch of Sir Charles Wood (afterwards Viscount Halifax), then President of

the Board of Control, a State-paper which set forth "a scheme of education for all India far more wide and comprehensive than the supreme or any local Government could have ventured to suggest". It was part of Lord Dalhousie's great work in India to initiate the new system, and every Viceroy since his day has pushed forward in the same direction. In 1857, while we were fighting for our hold on India, the Acts were passed which established the three Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, on the model of the University of London, as examining bodies empowered to confer degrees in arts, law, medicine, and civil engineering. The Punjab has now the University of Lahore, which is developed on more Oriental lines than the first three, and provides for the teaching of students, and a fifth University, for the North-Western Provinces, was founded in 1887 at Allahabad. These Universities control the higher education throughout India, having a matriculation examination open to all comers, but requiring candidates for degrees to become members of an affiliated college. During ten years, according to a recent return, above 113,000 candidates presented themselves for the entrance (matriculation) examination at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and of this number over 38,000 were successful. At Lahore, in three years 1021 passed the examination out of 2788 candidates; at Allahabad, in the same period, 1761 out of 3623 attained their object. Comparatively few students proceed to the higher degrees. In the ten years above mentioned, 2531 graduated B.A., and 429 M.A., at Calcutta; at Madras, the respective numbers were 2729 and 44; at Bombay, 1583 and 40; during the last six years of the period, there were 137 students admitted B.A. and 7 M.A. at Lahore; and for three recent years, 179 B.A. and 18 M.A. at Allahabad. Calcutta University turns out the great majority of graduates in law, a fact closely connected with the keen intellect and litigious character of Bengalis; at Bombay, the prevailing studies of graduates are medicine and engineering.

There are two chief classes of colleges or institutions for higher education—those taking the arts course for the University examinations, and establishments devoted to special subjects, medicine, law, or engineering. Some are entirely maintained by the Government, while others receive grants in aid of funds contributed by European or native founders and supporters. In 1891, there

were 139 such institutions, attended by nearly 16,000 male and 80 female students. Of boys' schools, the higher class are those which give instruction through the English language, and prepare candidates both for matriculation at the Universities and for the higher grades of the Government-service. Every District has at its capital town, or administrative head-quarters, one school of this class; in 1883 the number of high schools, including the *zilas* or District schools, was 530, of which 492, with 68,434 pupils, were for males, and 38, with 1165 learners, were educating girls. The middle schools, in the larger villages or smaller towns, some teaching English, others the native tongues, are of the same class as the middle schools of Great Britain. Recently, the whole number of establishments for secondary instruction, including the above higher and these middle schools, had risen to 5005, of which 4545, with nearly 437,000 pupils, were for males, and 460 schools educated nearly 36,000 girls. Little progress has been made in female education, owing to the strong prejudice on this subject still existing even amongst the more enlightened, English-speaking natives of the superior class; in Tinnevelli and in some other quarters where missionaries have been able to overcome the native feeling, greater success in this direction has been attained. In 1891, the whole of British India contained about 6500 girls' schools, attended by 316,000 pupils, a number nearly double that of 1883. Normal, technical, and industrial schools numbered recently 578, with over 20,000 students, including many training as schoolmasters and as female teachers. Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay have art-schools which do some good work in industrial training.

We come, lastly, to the great test of educational work, the progress made with primary schools. In 1882, Lord Ripon appointed an Educational Commission, with the view of carrying out to the fullest extent, and on the broadest basis, the scheme of popular education which had been indicated in the Despatch of 1854. This body of experts, headed by Dr. (the late Sir W. W.) Hunter, issued its report in the following year, after the President, accompanied by the provincial members, had made a tour through each Province, and personally inspected every District, with special regard to the training of teachers, the system of inspection, payment by results, and the extension of female education. Since

that time, and as the result of the facts learned by that investigation, much has been done in furthering public instruction by the foundation of new Government-schools, the encouragement of private enterprise in teaching, and the inspection of the native village-schools. It may be fairly asserted that a system of national education has been at last set afoot, with a network of institutions spread over India, starting from the indigenous "hedge-schools" of the Hindus and the old Mosque-schools of the Mohammedans, all now under Government inspection, and advancing upwards to the vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools, the High Schools, the affiliated colleges, and the Universities. The State Department of Public Instruction now has its branches in every Province, each under a Director, and supplied with a staff of inspecting officials. Of late, the number of pupils at the State-inspected or aided schools of British India, of all classes, reached nearly 3,700,000 in 138,350 schools, or one pupil in about 60 of the whole population. The male pupils were 3,382,000, or one boy in every 33 of the males; the girls under instruction numbered 316,000, or one girl at school for every 343 females. In Bengal, the great progress made, from only 2450 primary schools, with about 65,000 pupils, in 1872, to nearly 50,000 schools, with more than 1,115,000 scholars, in recent times, is chiefly due to the reforms instituted at that date by Lieutenant-Governor Sir George Campbell. In the North-Western Provinces, the system of primary education is due to the ability and energy of that admirable ruler and administrator, Mr. James Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor from 1843 to 1853, and of Sir William Muir, who was in supreme power there from 1868 to 1874.

In connection with the subject of education, we may note a steady growth in the publication of newspapers and books in the native tongues. The year 1818 saw the issue of the first vernacular journal, published at Serampur by the Baptist missionaries. The last half-century has produced the vernacular newspapers which are now so influentially engaged on political questions. The statistics differ largely, indeed, from those with which we are familiar in Great Britain, as the official returns, for the whole of India, give a total sale little exceeding a quarter of a million copies to 463 newspapers in vernacular languages. The number of readers, however, must be vastly larger than that of the actual

purchasers. In Bengal, some of the many newspapers published in English are owned and written by natives. The North-Western Provinces and the Punjab have over 100 newspapers printed in Hindustani or Urdu, the language used by Mohammedans throughout India. In Bombay, the languages thus employed are Gujarati and Marathi. The number of daily vernacular newspapers is 10, with about 200 weekly, 60 monthly, and the rest fortnightly or quarterly issues. Recent book-statistics show that 668 books, pamphlets, and periodicals were published in English or other European languages, 5566 in vernacular tongues, 647 in the "classical languages" of India, and 1004 in more than one language. Of the whole, about 5500 were original works, the rest being translations or re-issues of previous publications. Of the subjects, poetry, drama, and fiction claimed over 1800 works, of which about two-thirds were poetical; history and biography stand for 232; language, 1165; law and medicine, nearly 350; philosophy, 460, including mental and moral science, and many works that we should call religious or theological; religious works, above 1500; arts, 100; mathematics, mechanics, and natural science, above 400; politics, 24; voyages and travels, 9; and miscellaneous subjects, 1708. For the above figures, as for so much else concerning India, we are indebted to the 3rd edition of Sir W. W. Hunter's *The Indian Empire*, so often referred to in these pages, a work indispensable to all who desire full, accurate, and recent information on our greatest Eastern possession.

Before referring briefly to the Native States, we may note some islands and outlying territories. *British Baluchistan* has been already mentioned in connection with the railway-extension to Sibi, Quetta, and Chaman, and its great strategical value. In 1877, the chief Baluch ruler, the Khan of Khelat, after attendance at the Grand Darbar at Delhi, to hear the Queen proclaimed as Empress of India, admitted a "Governor-General's Agent" to reside at his court, and he showed the most loyal spirit towards his new and powerful friends, during the last Afghan war, in aiding British troops with the resources of his territory and sending his son and heir-apparent to accompany our forces on their passage through his dominions. Since 1882, on payment of an annual quit-rent of £2500, the district of Quetta, with an unknown area and small population, has been in British hands for administration.

The town of Quetta has a military cantonment occupied by a strong brigade of troops, and the place, with municipal rule, has much increased in size and importance. What is now styled "British Baluchistan" includes Pishin, Sibi, and other districts formerly in South Afghanistan, assigned to our possession in 1879 by the Treaty of Gandamak. The little state called *Sikkim*, in the eastern Himalayas, bounded on the north by Tibet, and on the south by the British District of Darjiling, a country of dense jungle, has been under British control since 1890, by a treaty concluded with the Maharaja, whose subjects had, in former days, been much addicted to kidnapping traders and other travellers. A little trade is done in country-produce—rice, millet, Indian corn, oranges, and tea—and in imported cotton piece-goods and tobacco.

The *Andamans* or *Andaman Islands*, in the south-east of the Bay of Bengal, consist of the Great and Little Andaman groups, extending north and south above 200 miles, with a total area of about 2500 square miles. The capital, Port Blair, on the south-east shore of South Andaman, the southern island of the Great Andamans, with one of the safest harbours in the world, derives its name from Lieutenant Archibald Blair, who surveyed the groups during a complete circuit which he made in 1789–90, and constructed general charts and plans. A central range of mountains, in this group, reaches a height of 2400 feet, and the islands display beautiful scenery in the varied outline of inlets and bays, and in the forest-trees, palms, bamboos, cotton-trees, mangroves, and great euphorbias. The jungle, with a dense undergrowth that neither man nor beast can penetrate, is full of deadly malaria. The *flora* is notable for the rarity of cocoa-nut palms; the *fauna* for the absence of all mammals save hogs, ichneumons, and rats, and for the scarcity of birds. Fish, various and excellent, abound on the coast, including soles, prawns, shrimps, and oysters; the bather has to beware of sharks; the epicure may rejoice in turtles and edible birds' nests. Coral-reefs hedge in the groups on all sides. The first attempt at settlement, in 1789, failed in a seven-years' struggle with jungle-fever, the cannibal natives and their arrows, and lack of regular supplies from the mainland. For fifty years from that date, the Andamans had the worst of names for the savage character of people who slew the savant whom the Indian Government sent to study the natural history of their abode, murdered ship-

wrecked crews, and, in two cases, cut off stragglers from the crew and passengers of troop-ships driven ashore. The Indian authorities determined to put an end to what had become a scandal and discredit, and to occupy the Andamans in force. In 1858, when the Mutiny had left large numbers of life-convicts on our hands, the whole group was annexed as a colony for prisoners, and placed (in 1872) under the control of an officer now styled "Chief Commissioner and Superintendent, Andaman and Nicobar Islands", reporting to the supreme Government of India. For five years much trouble was caused by the ferocious enmity of the natives, who murdered every straggler, stole and destroyed property by fire, and, in general, displayed a spirit of what expressive American slang denominates as "cussedness" of an extreme type. Even these people were at last subdued by a combination of kindness which built for them sheds for protection from tropical rains, and bestowed food and medicine in their hour of need; and of just severity that inflicted prompt and memorable chastisement on wanton and malignant ill-doers. The tragical end of Lord Mayo, in no wise reflecting on the Andaman people, has been already described. The present convict-population, numbering about 11,500, of whom more than 8800 are "lifers", come from the jails of the three Provinces Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, and from Burma. There are no recent figures for the European residents, numbering perhaps 2500, including officials of every class, and somewhere about 750 police. The ethnology of the native people is very obscure. Their skin is very black; the tallest specimens seldom exceed five feet; few of them live to be forty; the women rarely bear more than two children; the day of their extinction cannot be far distant. At the British settlements, sugar-cane, arrow-root, rice, cocoa-nuts, maize, and vegetables are grown in sufficiency for local needs, nearly 10,000 acres being under pasture and cultivation. A recent census shows that there are about 4225 horned cattle, and prosperity is looked for in the breeding of sheep and cattle, and in the energetic spread of the cocoa-nut palm. A steady improvement, through swamp-drainage, jungle-clearing, and other measures, is taking place in the average annual death-rate of a region where the rainfall reaches about 120 inches, and the annual mean temperature is 82 degrees.

The *Nicobar Islands*, to the south of the Andamans, have twelve inhabited out of a score. The northern group is low-lying,

with cocoa-nut palms; the southern has forest-clad hills 2000 feet in height. The area exceeds 400 square miles; the people are estimated at 6000. The group was in Danish possession from 1846 to 1858, when it was abandoned. In 1869, after a case of piracy and murder perpetrated by the natives on a British vessel and crew, the Indian Government annexed the islands and placed them in charge of the Andamans Commissioner. The chief settlement is at Nancowry, on Camorta Island, 16 miles in length, with a splendid harbour. The establishment consists of about 235 convicts, 27 police, and 50 native troops. There are fine timber and tropical fruits, the edible nests of the Nicobar swallow, and abundant fish and turtles, with poultry and pigs as domestic creatures. The people are of doubtful origin, copper-hued, with visages of mixed Malay and Chinese features. They live in small collections of round, windowless, thatched huts, raised 10 feet from the ground on wooden pillars, with a trap-door below, reached by a ladder drawn up at night. In character they are a cowardly, treacherous, lazy, drunken set of murderous scoundrels, very superstitious, with a reverential regard for people who can read or write, and a republican equality in social matters. The men are husbands of one wife at a time, whom they divorce at a moment's notice for the slightest cause. The chief products of the Nicobars are cocoa-nuts, edible birds' nests, *trepang* (the sea-slug or *bêche de mer*, a marine animal of the thorny-skinned invertebrate class, including starfishes; it boils down into a rich gelatinous soup), and tortoise-shell. The northern islands annually export over 4½ millions of cocoa-nuts, and the extreme cheapness of the article brings yearly larger numbers of British and Malay vessels, whose captains procure their cargoes by barter, obtaining the nuts in exchange for coloured cloth, handkerchiefs, cutlasses, spoons, tobacco, red woollen caps, old clothes, and black hats. The climate is very unhealthy from jungle and swamp, the rainfall about equalling that of the Andamans.

The *Laccadives* or *Laccadive Islands* are a group of fourteen, discovered by Vasco da Gama in 1499, lying about 200 miles west of the Malabar coast of the Madras Presidency or Province. The whole have an area of about 750 square miles, with a population of nearly 14,500, mostly Mohammedans of Hindu race. The northern islands, with about one-third of the people, are alone in

British possession, but the southern portion, belonging to the native Raja of Cannanore, have been administered, since 1877, by the Collector of Malabar, the northern being attached to the Collectorate of South Kanara. The islands are of coral formation, flat in surface, fringed by coral reefs, generally enclosing a lagoon of still water on the western side. Above the limestone or coral crust foundation lies a soil of from two to six feet in depth, usually composed of light coral sand. Only two of the islands produce any vegetation of value, the cocoa-nut palm being the chief resource of the people. The fauna are few in number, except rats and tortoises, the former being very hurtful to the young cocoa-nut trees. The Government-revenue is derived from the profits on the sale of coir, or cocoa-nut fibre, which has of late years been so extensively used for matting, brushes, ships' fenders, cables, and ropes. The material is purchased from the people of the northern islands at a fixed price, payment being made partly in coin and partly in rice. The men are bold mariners and excellent boat-builders; the women are engaged in the chief industry, that of preparing the coir by steeping and then beating with sticks the husk of the cocoa-nut until the fibres are easily separated. Other exports are cocoa-nuts, copra (the kernel of the nuts broken up preparatory to oil-extraction), tortoise-shell, the cowrie-shells used for ornament and as coins, and jaggery, a sugar made from the boiled sap of the date-palm. Terrible loss of life has been caused, notably in 1847 and 1867, by cyclones bringing waves submerging for a time some of the islands.

The Native States or Sovereignties of India, variously styled "Subsidiary", "Mediatized", "Feudatory", "Independent", afford one of the most remarkable proofs of British genius for imperial rule. Few British readers are even now aware of the number, nature, extent, and variety of the states thus connected with our Eastern Empire. No detailed description of these states is here given, because they form no integral part of the British dominions, nor do they contribute, save by commerce, to British wealth or power, except in so far as military contingents have been, as already shown, placed at the disposal of British Indian rulers for service against any foreign aggression. In these states the Queen's writ, in legal phrase, does not run. A subject of these states cannot claim British rights in British territory, until he has become "naturalized".

They have their own laws, their own courts and procedure. Their rulers, having revenues and armies of their own, rights of hereditary succession and of adoption of successors, and, in the more important states, exercising the power of life and death over their subjects, are "independent" sovereigns in the technical sense, and are actually independent within limits fairly wide. Their territories are, to the rest of India, "foreign" states, the correspondence and general business with which is carried on through the Foreign Office of the supreme Indian Government, and by special departments of the Bombay, Madras, and other Provincial administrations. The true position of the Native States and their rulers is indicated by the fact that they lie ever at the mercy of overwhelming power close to their doors. They are dependent, for their continued independence, on the combined good-will and good faith of the British Government, or, in other words, on their own good behaviour, according to British ideas of humanity and propriety of conduct. They cannot make war, they can form no treaties, with other states in or out of India. The sovereigns must rule for the good of their people, looking for advice and assistance to the Resident or Agent appointed for each state by the representative, the Viceroy, of their powerful friend, the Empress of India. The authority of native rulers is limited by usage, or by treaties or engagements which acknowledge their subordination to the British Government, but they stand secure and unmenaced, subject only to interference for misrule; to rebuke and, in extreme cases, to removal, for oppression or crime; protected against all aggression, sure of peace save through their own default. This relationship between the British Indian Government and the Native States—this political partnership for the defence of India from without, and for the promotion of peace, security, social progress, and contentment within, is unique in history, bearing little resemblance to the position of subject-states in the Roman Empire. In no case would the British Government now think of annexation. An incurably bad ruler would be deposed in favour of a fit successor, either of his own line, or of his adoption, or, failing both, of selection by the Governor-General in Council.

As regards the area and population of these Native States, we find that the 688 such separate territories make up 595,000 square miles, with a population of 66 millions, as against 965,000 square

miles and 221 millions of people under direct British rule. Of these states, 170 are directly supervised by the Supreme Government; 361 by the Government of Bombay; 5 by the Government of Madras; 34 by the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab; 30 by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and the rest by the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, and by the Chief Commissioners of the Central Provinces, Assam, and Burma. It is satisfactory to know that educated native opinion in India, as manifested through the native Press, has ranged itself decisively on the side of British ideas and methods in government, and the administrations of Mysore, Baroda, and Kolhapur (in Bombay Presidency, between Poona and Goa) are extolled as samples of the best form of Indian "Home Rule", the fact being that the government of these states became Anglicized under British guidance during long minorities of their native sovereigns. The ordinary sample of Native States is still devoid of any legislative assembly, of independence in the law-courts, of publicity for the acts and aims of the ruling body, and of any liability in the executive to public justice for their public acts. The British Agent or Resident, however, has a sharp eye on all proceedings, and regularly sends in his report to the head-quarters of supreme rule. The amount of progress which has already been made in rational and humane administration within the borders of these states is a very eloquent, wonderful, and enduring testimony to the tact and sagacity of British rulers in India, and to their genius, not only for conquest and mastery, but for the higher and nobler work of guiding and leading mankind on the path of progress to better things than those of the past.

The *Native States* under the *Bombay Government* have an area of 69,000 square miles, and a population of about 8 millions, the chief being *Cutch*, *Kolhapur*, and *Khairpur* (in *Sind*). The *Madras Government* has charge of states with an area of 9600 square miles, and a population of about 3¾ millions, the chief being *Travancore* and *Cochin*. Attached to *Bengal* are states with an area of nearly 36,000 square miles, and a population of 3,300,000; the chief being *Hill Tipperah* and *Kuch Behar*. The *North-Western Provinces' Native States* are about 5000 square miles in area, with people to the number of 800,000. In the *Central Provinces*, the figures are 29,500 square miles and 2,160,000 people,

the chief state being *Bastar*. The *Punjab* Government controls States exceeding 38,000 square miles in extent, with over 4¼ millions of people, the chief being *Bahawulpur*, 17,300 square miles and 650,000 people, and *Patiala*, 6000 square miles and 1,600,000. The *Central India States* (*Central India Agency* and *Bundelkhand*), with nearly 78,000 square miles and 10½ millions of people, include the important *Gwalior* (nearly 26,000 square miles and 3½ millions), *Rewa* (12,680 square miles and 1½ millions), *Indore* (9600 square miles and 1,100,000), and *Bhopal* (nearly 7000 square miles and 950,000). Of the *Shan States*, on the borders of Burma, Siam, and China, partly independent, partly under British control, the British portion has a supposed area of 40,000 square miles and an estimated population of 2 millions. *Manipur*, in north-eastern India, with 8000 square miles, and a population of about ¼ million, under the control, through a Political Agent, of the Chief Commissioner of Assam, consists mainly of a valley situated in the midst of a mountainous country surrounded by Assam, Cachar, Burma, and Chittagong. The hills attain a height exceeding 8000 feet above sea-level, partly covered with huge forest-trees and bamboo-jungle, containing large herds of wild elephants, with tigers, leopards, bears, wild cats, deer, wild hogs, and, in some parts, the wild buffalo and the rhinoceros. The boa-constrictor and other serpents of a formidable size exist, but there are not many poisonous snakes. The religion is a mixture of Hinduism with the olden worship of hill-tribes. The breed of strong, hardy ponies, under 12 hands in height, had long been used by the Manipuris for their favourite game of horseback-hockey, before British officers imported it, in 1863, to Calcutta, whence it was carried to other British places of residence in India, and, about 1870, introduced into Great Britain. In 1891, this little State became notorious for the troubles which involved the treacherous murder, by an usurping Raja, of Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam, the officer commanding his escort, and other gentlemen, including Mr. St. Clair Grimwood. Our outposts on the Eastern Bengal and North Burma (western) frontier were endangered, but our position was soon vindicated with triumphant success. The retreat of some portion of the troops, in presence of overwhelming force, was distinguished by the heroic calmness, courage, and self-sacrifice of the widowed Mrs. Grimwood, author of *My Three Years in Manipur*. The

usurper and his chief instruments were put to death, and the native government was rearranged under the control of our Political Agent.

The *Rajputana States*, with an area of about 130,000 square miles, and a population of 12 millions, include *Jodhpur* (37,500 square miles and 2½ millions), *Bikaner* (23,000 square miles and 830,000), *Jaipur* (15,300 square miles and nearly 3 millions), *Udaipur* (nearly 13,000 square miles and nearly 2 millions), with minor states in *Bhartpur* and *Alwar*, &c. *Kashmir* (Cashmere), with about 81,000 square miles, has a population exceeding 2½ millions. *Haidarabad* (the Nizam's Dominions) has 82,700 square miles and a population of 11½ millions. *Baroda*, 8220 square miles and nearly 2½ millions. Lastly, *Mysore*, including the British portion of *Bangalore*, has an area of about 28,000 square miles, and nearly 5 millions of people. Among the few large towns of these Native States, we first note *Haidarabad*, to be carefully distinguished from the far smaller town of that name described under Sind. The Haidarabad of the Nizam's Dominions has, with its suburbs, a population well exceeding 400,000. It lies at about 1700 feet above sea-level, in the south-east of the State, 450 miles south-east from Bombay. The city, about 6 miles in circumference, with a stone wall around it flanked with bastions, has a very mixed and warlike population of Rohillas and Arabs, Marathas and Pathans, Sikhs and Turks, Persians and Bokhariots, Madrasis and Parsis. Every man walks the street carrying some weapon, and the military classes go fully armed. The scenery around Haidarabad is picturesque, with many granite peaks and isolated rocks scattered about a hilly region. The *Jama Masjid* or "Cathedral" Mosque is crowned with minarets unusually lofty, and has interior pillars of great height, monoliths of the granite of the land. The British Residency is a splendid structure, connected with the Nizam's palace by a bridge of eight squared granite arches, carrying a roadway 24 feet in width. The portico of the building is approached by a flight of 22 steps, with a colossal sphinx on either hand, and six Corinthian columns, faced with snow-white stone, rise from the summit of the steps to the top of the upper storey. The interior staircase, with each step a monolith of the finest granite, is the best specimen of its class in India, and the whole interior and exterior of the place are adorned with the greatest profusion of the Oriental style in painting, gilding, and other

details. *Bangalore*, the actual capital of the State of Mysore, stands in the centre of the Mysore plateau, 3100 feet above sea-level, 216 miles, by railway, west of Madras. We must note that this place and a small surrounding district, 13½ square miles in all, are British territory, assigned to our possession when Mysore, in 1881, was restored to the native prince. The population (1891) exceeded 180,000. The city contains a fort with an arsenal; a suburb (St. John's Hill, or Cleveland Town) dotted with the cottages of many European pensioned soldiers, the view being topped, in English style, by the spire of the parish-church; many handsome public buildings; Hindu temples and Mohammedan mosques; and seven other churches of divers Christian bodies. The Lal Bagh, a beautiful pleasure-garden, with a fine collection of tropical and sub-tropical plants, has flower and fruit shows at certain seasons, and a weekly gathering of people to hear the music of the band. A large manufacture of carpets, and of gold and silver lace, and leather-tanning, are the chief industries of this prosperous town, noted for its healthy climate, with an excellent system of water-supply and drainage, an annual rainfall of 36 inches, and a death-rate of rather more than 16 per 1000 per annum even in the crowded native town. *Jaipur* (Jeypore), capital of the Native State of that name in Rajputana, has a population of about 160,000, and lies north-east of Ajmir, on the railway from Ahmadabad to Agra. It is the largest town and chief commercial centre of the Rajputana States, and, founded in 1728, is in many points the finest of modern Hindu cities. Placed on a small plain surrounded, save to the south, by rugged hills crowned with forts, the city is encircled by a masonry wall 20 feet high and 9 feet thick, with bastions and towers pierced for cannon, seven gateways, and a parapet loop-holed for musketry. The main streets are wide and regular, and the whole town is laid out on a plan of rectangular blocks, with cross streets and successive intersections, diminishing in width to narrow lanes. The chief thoroughfares are lit with gas manufactured in the suburbs, and are well paved and drained, with a width of 37 yards. This wealthy city, with a great business in banking, has all the institutions of an important British town, including the fine Mayo Hospital, splendid public gardens of 70 acres, and the Maharaja's college, with nearly 700 students, prepared for matriculation at the University of Calcutta.

Srinagar (119,000 people), the capital of Kashmir, on the banks of the Jehlam (Jhelum), lies in the centre of the "Happy Valley" sung by Moore in *Lalla Rookh*, at about 5300 feet above sea-level. Most of the people are Mohammedans; the chief business is in shawls; the place has no architectural distinction. *Baroda*, chief city of the Gaekwar's territory, lies in Gujarat, about 30 miles north of the Narbada (Nerbudda). The population is 116,000, chiefly Hindus, and the place has some fine modern buildings in the Hospital, State Library, Baroda College, and public offices. *Gwalior*, capital of its State, and residence of the Maharaja Sindhia, lying 65 miles south of Agra, is well known to British people at home from the views of its grand fortress on the isolated perpendicular rock, a mile and a half in length and 300 yards broad. The palace, built between 1486 and 1516, with great additions of a later date, under Jahangir and Shah Jahan, shows Hindu architecture of the best style. The new town, called Lashkar, where the Maharaja resides, and the irregular, dirty old town of Gwalior, at the eastern base of the rock, together have about 105,000 people. *Indore*, chief town of its State, capital of the Maharaja Holkar's dominions, is a modern city of 92,000 people, at nearly 1800 feet above sea-level, about 50 miles north of the Narbada in its lower course. The railway connects it with the rest of India; the chief industries are the manufacture of opium, and of cotton-cloth at a flourishing steam-mill. In a recent report the British revenue from about 12,500 chests of Indore-made opium amounted to £873,000 at £65 per chest. *Mysore* (74,000 people), the nominal capital of its State, a few miles south of Seringapatam, is a clean town with broad and regular streets, much improved in sanitary matters by its modern municipal board. *Bhopal* (70,000 people), chief town of its State, lies 1670 feet above the sea, about 100 miles north-east of Indore. The most notable fact concerning the town is the plentiful supply of water, free to all the people for ever, supplied at the cost of a native lady from works in charge of a British engineer. *Bhartpur* (Bhurtpore), with 68,000 people, the capital of its Rajputana State, has been seen by us in connection with the warlike part of our history in British India. *Bhaunagar*, capital of its State, in the British Agency of Kathiawar (Gujarat), is a modern town of 57,000 people, on the Gulf

of Cambay, with a large export of cotton to Bombay, and a spinning and weaving mill. *Bikaner* (56,000 people), chief town of its Rajput State, lies in a dreary, stony, barren region of north Rajputana, and is surrounded by a lofty and massive stone wall 3½ miles in extent. The streets are strangely irregular in plan; the people are engaged in pottery, stone-cutting, carving, and the making of fine woollen blankets. The fort, containing the Raja's palace, a vast structure, presents a grand appearance to the approaching traveller. *Udaipur* (or *Oodeypore*, with a population of 38,000), capital of its State in Rajputana, is one of the most charming places in India, situated about 50 miles east of the centre of the Aravalli Hills. Lying about 2000 feet above sea-level, the grand palace of marble and granite, rising to a height of 100 feet, flanked by octagonal towers topped with cupolas, looks down from a ridge upon a lake facing wooded hills, and from its terrace on the chief (the eastern) front commands a view of the city and valley. The great temple of Jagannath, and the turreted houses of the nobles, cupola-crowned, have a superb appearance above the massive battlemented city wall, to the traveller coming from the east. Water-palaces of marble, standing in the midst of a lake; flower-gardens, fountains, baths, groves of orange- and lemon-trees, with palmyra palms and plantains (banana-trees) overshadowing all, help to form a scene of entrancing beauty not surpassed in the Eastern world. We must refer, before passing on to Burma, to a town of some importance, omitted in the description of places in the Punjab. *Firozpur*, the administrative headquarters of its District, lies about 60 miles south of Lahore, on the old high bank of the river Sutlej, over 3 miles from the present river-bed. During the last half-century, the place has grown above fivefold in population, which numbered, recently, about 40,000, almost equally composed of Mohammedans and Hindus. There is a flourishing trade in grain and other produce, and the well-built town, with spacious streets, contains the usual public buildings, with a memorial church in honour of those who fell, in the first Sikh War, on the battlefields of Mudki (Moodkee), Firozshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon, all lying not very far east or north-east of the town. The arsenal is the chief military storehouse in the Punjab; the garrison generally consists of one British and one Native infantry regiment, with two batteries of artillery.

CHAPTER X.

British Possessions in Asia—*Continued.*

Burma, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Hong Kong, Borneo.

Burma—People—Physical features—Early history—First Burmese war—Rangoon captured and held—Cruelty and perfidy of the Burmese—Second Burmese war—Lord Dalhousie sends an expedition—Lower Burma annexed—Statistics of British Burma—Visit of Lord Mayo to Rangoon—Deposition of King Thebau and annexation of Upper Burma—Products and industries of the country—Administration—People—Education—Revenue and trade—Chief towns. Ceylon—Becomes a British possession—State of the country—Sir Edward Barnes and Major Skinner—Formation of roads, railways, and canals—Geography and climate of the island—Plague of land-leeches—Beauty of the scenery—Flora and fauna—People—Coffee, tea, and cacao planting—Other vegetable products—Minerals—Pearl-fishery—Imports and exports—Revenue—Administration—Education—Chief towns—Colombo. The Maldive Islands. Straits Settlements—Divisions—Singapore—Sir Stamford Raffles—Trade and productions of the island—Penang and Wellesley Province—The Dindings—Malacca—Keeling or Cocos Isles and Christmas Island—Population and administration of the Straits Settlements. Native Malay or Protected States. Hong Kong—Early history—Position and features of the island—Progress of the colony—Its extensive commerce—Victoria city—Administration—Education. Borneo—Area—Vegetation and fauna—People—Labuan—British North Borneo—Protectorates of Brunei and Sarawak—"Rajah Brooke".

Burma, with an area of 171,500 square miles, and a population reckoned at very nearly 8 millions, is officially constituted as an eleventh Government or Province of British India, with which, however, it is only connected by geographical union on its own western border. The people are chiefly of Indo-Chinese race, with Mongolian features, and complexions varying from clear white to dusky yellow. Their religion is Buddhistic; they have no castes, and no hereditary rank ever existed save in the royal lines, nor any nobility except in the way of official and personal distinctions. The Burmese are distinguished by their delight in all amusements—singing and music; dancing and drama; buffoonery and boat-racing; gambling and gaiety of every kind. In social affairs, the most striking difference between Burmese and Hindu life is found in the Burmese marriage of mutual affection, preceded by courtship in British and American fashion, as contrasted with the unions arranged in India by parents who betroth young boys and girls. The climate is one of abundant sunshine, and with a rainfall, during the south-west monsoon from May till

September, far exceeding that of India. The villages lie chiefly on river-banks, and are composed of wooden huts raised on piles to secure them from the floods. Nearly every village has its Buddhist monastery and a school attached thereto, the monks being maintained by alms willingly accorded in the hope of gaining a better life in the transmigration of souls which is believed to follow the present existence. The wives and daughters are the transactors, in the towns, of business at home and in the bazar, while the men attend, in an easy-going way, to cattle and tillage, fisheries and fruit-trees. The country-side is made gay by the view of the many pagodas adorned inside with painted and gilded statues of Buddha in various sizes, and with outer decorations of gilded pinnacles glittering in the sun.

The central portion of the country, including both Upper and Lower Burma, lies in the valley of the great river Irawadi, of unknown source, reaching the Bay of Bengal by nine principal mouths, enclosing a delta of 18,000 square miles, constantly growing from the vast deposit of silt. Boats can ascend the river for the whole of its known length of about 900 miles, and steamers of light draught can at all seasons make their way to Bhamo, 700 miles from the delta. The largest tributary is the Kyendwen (Chindwin), flowing in from the north about 400 miles from the sea. To the west of this central valley, the Yoma Mountains, from 4000 feet to 7000 in their higher peaks, run down the east side of the narrow coast-territory called Arakan, between the Irawadi delta and the south-east of Bengal; to the north, these mountains are a series of ranges, forest-clad, wild, and little known, connected with the hills of Cachar, Manipur, and the east of Assam. On the east side of the central valley of the Irawadi and its tributaries is the mountainous region of the Shans and other wild tribes. In the southernmost part of Burma, bordered by Siam, the narrow coast-region called Tenasserim runs down as far as the latitude of Ceylon, on the opposite side of the Bay of Bengal.

The earlier history of Burma has little of interest or importance. It is certain that the Buddhist religion was introduced, either from India or Ceylon, not later than the fifth century of our era, and that invasions have occurred, from time to time, of tribes coming from China on the north and Siam on the south. In the fifteenth century, European travellers tell of flourishing trade in Pegu and Tenasserim.

In the sixteenth century, we find Portuguese adventurers as petty rulers or piratical chiefs in Arakan, making themselves and their followers a terror to the peaceful traders in the Bay of Bengal, or aiding native kings in their internecine struggles. In the middle of the eighteenth century, a man of low origin, born to rise and rule, named Alaungpaya, commonly called Alompra, founded a dynasty of Burmese kings, ruling the whole country, with an inland capital at Ava, and a maritime capital, founded by Alompra, at Rangoon. Their government was that of despots of the old Mughal (Mogul) type, living in gaudy state, making progresses through the land, and administering affairs through a complicated host of officials controlling provinces, districts, towns, and villages in downward gradation, all subject to the sovereign's capricious and irresponsible will. When the territories of a tyrant of this class, as ignorant of British character and British power as he was incapable of self-restraint, became conterminous with Bengal, trouble was sure to arise. It was under Lord Amherst, in 1824, in spite of his earnest desire for peace, that the first Burmese War came to pass. In 1823, after Burmese conquest of Assam and Manipur, their general Maha Bandoola, a man of courage and ability, invaded Bengal, cut off a detachment of British sepoys, and forced Lord Amherst to declare war.

A triple invasion of Burma was made, the operations being under the general direction of Sir Archibald Campbell, a distinguished veteran of Wellington's army in the Peninsular War. A force of gun-boats, with sailors, marines, and troops, was sent up the Brahmaputra into Assam. A body of Bengal sepoys, men whom caste forbade to cross the "black water", went by land, through Chittagong, into Arakan. The main expedition sailed from Madras in May, 1824, to the Irawadi delta, under Campbell's immediate command, and Rangoon was taken almost without a blow. We may state at once that this war, lasting for two years, cost the sum of 14 millions sterling, and the fearful number of twenty thousand lives, few in battle, mostly from disease in a pestilential climate where heat and malaria were aggravated by the lack of good sense, most cruel in its effects, which sent the troops forth in stiff, unsuitable apparel, and fed them on salt meat, biscuit, and rum. The Burmese, showing some valour under proper leading, were most conspicuous for their skill and patience in forming

stockades and rifle-pits for defence of their positions, and for their cruel treatment of prisoners and wounded men. Rangoon had been, at the king's command, abandoned by the people, and came into our hands as a place devoid of stores. The rainy season kept the British occupants there for the next seven months, dependent for supplies on ships arriving from Calcutta and Madras, as the jungle swarmed with the native warriors, the villages were strongly defended with stockades, and foraging was thus made a hopeless undertaking. In December, 1824, Bandoola led a force of 60,000 men to assail Rangoon, held by five British infantry regiments, nine regiments of Sepoy foot, and some companies of artillery. Among the British officers was Major Sale, commanding 400 of his own regiment, the 13th Foot, and displaying the determined courage and the skill which afterwards won renown, as we have seen, at Jellalabad in the first Afghan War. A seven days' struggle, of a desperate character, against Burmese artillery and musketry, rifle-pits and stockades, armed boats and fire-rafts, ended in complete victory for the British force and the capture of 240 out of 300 great cannon employed by the foe.

In February, 1825, General Campbell set his troops in motion, by land and water, up the Irawadi, towards Bandoola's new fortified position at Donabew, about forty miles up the river from Rangoon. The main body, however, made towards Ava, and a rash attack, with a detachment, on the Burmese field-works and stockades, was repulsed with loss. The wounded men left behind in a hasty retreat were crucified by the Burmese, and their bodies were sent floating upon rafts down the river. The whole force then assailed the enemy with rockets and shells, one of which killed the Burmese commander, whereupon his men dispersed into the jungle, and a renewed advance gave the British forces, by the end of April, possession of Prome, on the Irawadi about 200 miles from the sea. The rainy season then stayed operations till November, and more Burmese defeats, in our advance upon Ava, brought the British army within fifty miles of the capital. In the spring of 1826, the Burmese monarch came to terms in the Treaty of Yandabu. Assam, Arakan, and Tenasserim were ceded, the king remaining in possession of Pegu and Upper Burma, with the city of Rangoon. A British minister was to reside at the court of Ava; the British head-quarters were fixed at Maulmain (Moulmein) in Tenasserim.

The king and his officials seemed to have quickly forgotten the lessons of the war, and, after the British forces had retired, they refused, in effect, to carry out the stipulation for freedom of British trade in Burmese territory. They specially resented the enforced acceptance of a foreign Resident at the capital of a potentate who styled himself "The Elder Brother of China", and "The Lord who is the Greatest of Kings". A new sovereign, usurping power after slaughter of all members of the previous dynasty in 1837, drove the British minister, by gross and repeated insults, from Ava to Rangoon, whence he was withdrawn in 1840, and for the next twelve years our merchants were made subject to extortion and to much other irritation and wrong. Lord Dalhousie, the last man to neglect the claims of injured British subjects, after vain remonstrance and demand for redress, resolved on war, and an expedition was prepared with due regard to the dangers of the Burmese climate. A parental care on the part of the Governor-General provided bake-houses for a constant supply of bread; abundance of fresh meat; suitable dress; shelter from sun and rain; a hospital at Amherst, on the Gulf of Martaban, on an airy elevation fanned by the sea-breeze; prompt conveyance thither for the sick and wounded. A squadron from Bombay, consisting of 19 steamers with 2300 seamen and marines, accompanied a land-army of nearly 6000 men under the command of General Godwin. In April, 1852, the mouths of the Irawadi were occupied, Martaban and Bassein were seized, and a brilliant feat of arms was achieved in the storming of the almost impregnable temple-fortress at Rangoon. This grand stroke of modern warfare, too little known and valued amidst the other exploits of our army nearer home, was delivered against a force of 18,000 men holding the city and great pagoda, with the aid of the picked guards known as "The Immortals of the Golden Country", men bound to die at their posts rather than surrender or flee. The wives and children of the married men among the mass of the Burmese were held by the king as pledges to ensure their courage, and the unmarried warriors were chained up to the guns and embrasures of the fort. The British column, advancing against a storm of shot, under a blazing sun, up the steep and narrow stairs leading to the three terraces of the pagoda, rushed on with levelled steel, uttering the shouts with which our troops have so often shaken the nervous systems of more formidable foes than the Burmese.

The "Immortals", before the bayonets had touched their skins, fled in terror, but the Governor of Rangoon, from a place of safety, still advised Godwin "to retreat while he could". The city of Prome was captured in the autumn, and, as the Burmese emperor declined to treat, Lord Dalhousie, in December, 1852, proclaimed the annexation to the British empire of Lower Burma, or the province of Pegu, on the lower courses of the Irawadi, connecting our former acquisitions of Arakan and Tenasserim.

In the midst of his sufferings from broken health and over-work, the great Governor-General, in 1852, 1853, and 1855, four times visited Burma, improving and settling the administration of previous and recent conquests. The isolation of Arakan was ended by the formation of a solid military road across the Yoma Mountains to the Irawadi valley, and commercial centres were opened or developed at Akyab, Bassein, Rangoon, and other points. Major (afterwards Sir Arthur) Phayre was made Commissioner of Pegu, and a regular administration was formed, including many Burmese officials in the lower ranks. The new province was cleared of robbers, and a new reign of law and order, an unwonted blessing to the Burmese people, was inaugurated. In 1862, Pegu, Arakan, and Tenasserim became "British Burma", with Phayre as "Chief Commissioner", and the growth of prosperity was such that the Province not only paid its own expenses of rule, but furnished a large yearly surplus to the imperial revenue. The meaning of "peace", to a country of great resources which has long suffered from misrule, is strikingly shown in a few statistics of Burma at this and later times. In 1881, the inhabitants of Rangoon were fourteen times as many as in 1852. Five years after annexation, in the year ending March 31st, 1858, the trade of the port amounted to little more than two millions of tens of rupees; in 1891 it was nearly six times as much for private commerce alone, apart from Government material and stores. In 1855, Amherst district had about 83,000 people; in 1891, they were 417,000. In 1830, Akyab had a yearly trade of £7000; in 1879, its value exceeded two millions sterling, a nearly 300-fold increase in half a century. In 1855, the population of Lower Burma was 1¼ millions; in 1891 it exceeded 4½ millions. The history of the world may be challenged for any more striking instance of the benefits of successful war to a conquered people. The secret lies in the fact

that the conquerors, with all their faults, were in this case wise, just, and humane as well as strong, the bearers of a flag that brings in its rear good government and lucrative trade as the sequel of glittering bayonets and bursting shells.

In 1862, a new king of Burma made a friendly treaty at Mandalay with Sir Arthur Phayre; and five years later his successor, General Fytche, concluded a second treaty, which led to a large extension of trade with Upper or Independent Burma, and the establishment of a line of steamers to Mandalay and Bhamo. The first ruler of British India who displayed a special interest in Burmese affairs, after Lord Dalhousie, was Lord Mayo. It was only just prior to his tragical and lamentable end that, in February, 1872, he landed at Rangoon, and was received with loud acclamations from thousands of delighted and excited Burmese, including the strange sight, for the East, of many native ladies, welcoming the Governor-General and his wife with gifts of flowers. Amid the festivities of a week and the personal inspection of the results of twenty years' British rule, Lord Mayo received deputations from all classes of the community, and then, after a hurried visit to Maulmain, he steamed away to meet his fate at the Andamans. In 1885, a new Burmese ruler, King Thebau, a tipsy tyrant who had begun his reign with a family-massacre, brought trouble in his defiant refusal to redress the wrongs of certain British traders, agents of a timber-company at work in his dominions. Summary measures were taken by Lord Dufferin, the Viceroy, and a fleet of war-steamers, with a military force under General Prendergast, moved up the Irawadi to Mandalay. Almost without resistance, the capital was taken; the king surrendered and went a prisoner first to Rangoon, and then to British India, where he became a pensioner of the State. On January 1st, 1886, the annexation of Upper Burma was proclaimed, and the Viceroy, in the following month, went thither to arrange the administration. Great progress has since been made in the whole of Burma. For some years, great efforts were needed for the suppression of dacoits in the newly-conquered territory; some present trouble is that arising from tribes on the Chinese frontier who never were really subject to Burmese kings, and have been wont for ages to come down from fastnesses in the hills to plunder the tillers of the plains. Every cold season, well-

equipped columns of British troops are sent to give lessons in the proper conduct for dwellers on our borders, and the evil is yearly being abated.

Teak and other timber, and bamboos on the hills; rice and tobacco on the plains; mineral-oil in the Irawadi valley; tin and very rich and pure iron-ore in Tenasserim; these are among the chief vegetable and mineral products of Burma. Nearly all the rice used for distillation and starch in Great Britain comes from that country, the annual exports amounting to about 20 million cwts., valued at over 5 million tens of rupees; much of this, however, passes from our shores to continental ports. The forest-trees furnish valuable wood-oil, tannin, varnish, and gums; orchids, ferns, mosses, flowering shrubs, creepers, and trees, give great beauty of form and hue to the jungle-scenes. In the hills to the north of Mandalay, over an area of about 200 square miles, on a plateau 5600 feet above sea-level, are the famous ruby-mines, which yield the finest stones of that class in the world. Jealously guarded from foreign intrusion, and rudely worked in the days of Burmese rule, these mines produced rubies to the known value of about £100,000 a-year, but it is certain that many valuable stones were secreted and sold to European dealers. Farther north still are mines of jade and amber, of which the former precious mineral is exported to China and Japan. Near Mandalay, fine white marble is quarried, and coal, used for steamer-fuel, is obtained in Upper Burma, on the banks of the Chindwin. The fauna include the elephant, rhinoceros, tapir, bison, buffalo, deer in many species, wild hogs, leopards, tigers, and bears. Elephants, ponies, buffaloes, and oxen are used as domestic animals of draught, but there are no horses of native breed, and the donkey scarcely exists in the land. Sheep and goats are rare; poultry abundant and good. The cobra and the python abound. There is a vast variety of birds, including the most brilliant-hued peacocks, golden and silver pheasants, and aquatic fowl of every kind. The abundance and variety of fish in the rivers and coast-seas are prodigious, and a condiment called *nga-pi*, or "pressed fish", is of universal use throughout the country. The chief industries are the weaving of the bright-hued silks worn by men and women on festive occasions; earthenware, lacquered bamboo-ware, wood-carving, gold and silver ornaments, and gongs for the European market. In Lower Burma, the seaports contain

scores of rice-mills for husking the grain and of steam saw-mills for the timber-trade. The women are proficient in rolling the cigars universally smoked by Burmese men, women, youths of both sexes, and young children, and largely exported for Europeans who relish a strong-flavoured "weed".

The river Irawadi, its delta-branches, and its chief tributaries, are main channels of communication between the sea-board and the interior. The "Irrawaddy Flotilla Company", with numerous steamers and "flats", and its head-quarters at Rangoon, competes with thousands of native boats employed in the traffic, and a regular steam-service from the chief port up to Mandalay, Bhamo, and river-stations at various points, conveys imports of British piece-goods, salt, hardware, and rice from the deltaic region. The steam-locomotive has for some years been seen in the land. The Irawadi Valley State Railway, 163 miles in length, runs from Rangoon to Prome, and another line connects the capital of Lower Burma with Mandalay. Very recent extensions of the steel-roadway pass west of the Irawadi up to Wuntho, 150 miles beyond Mandalay, and, on the east, to Bhamo and Myo-haung. A very useful canal, about 40 miles long, has been made between the Sittaung and Irawadi rivers, avoiding the dangerous "bore" of the Sittaung estuary, and opening up a once isolated region. Similar work, with the clearing of blocked-up river-channels, is being executed at various places in the lower Irawadi valley.

For administrative purposes, the whole of Burma is divided into Lower Burma, with 4 Divisions (*Arakan*, *Pegu*, *Irawadi*, *Tenasserim*) and 19 Districts, and Upper Burma, containing 4 Divisions (*Northern*, *Southern*, *Central*, *Eastern*) and 17 Districts, ruled in the fashion with which we are familiar in connection with British India on the west and north of the Bay of Bengal. The bulk of the people live in over 28,000 villages with a population of less than 1000, and there were, in 1891, only seven towns with a population exceeding 20,000. Of 7,600,000 people, nearly 7 millions are Buddhists; 171,000 are Hindus, ¼ million Mohammedans, about 120,000 are Christians, 168,000 aboriginal pagans (of "Animistic religions", or polydæmonistic, magic tribal faiths), with a sprinkling of Sikhs, and some Parsi and Jew traders. It is too early to expect much from British education. Recently, about 227,500 males and 18,000 females were under instruction, and

1½ millions of males and nearly 90,000 females were returned as "literate", or able at least to read, a result which, if it be correct, does credit to the work of the 20,000 Buddhist monks in their schools. These men form an influential and much-respected class, poor and celibate, but permitted to set aside their profession at pleasure, with its vows, its shaven head, and yellow robes, and to return to the world. The land-revenue for a recent year was returned at 2,142,000 rupees out of a total of nearly 5,100,000 rupees, made up from the very low land-tax, customs, excise, forests, capitation-tax, and fishery-rents. The imports of Burma for 1893 had a value of nearly 5½ millions of tens of rupees (10 rupees = 12*s.* at present reduced value); the exports were worth 9¼ millions of tens of rupees. The extent of the Rangoon trade, now much exceeding that of Madras, is indicated by the fact that in the same year her total imports and exports, in merchandise alone, including re-exports, had a value exceeding 12½ millions of tens of rupees, or nearly five-sixths of the whole Burmese trade.

The chief towns of this rising country are Mandalay, Rangoon, Maulmain, Prome, Bassein, Akyab, and Bhamo. *Mandalay* (population about 189,000), the former royal capital of Ava or Upper Burma, is a quite modern town in a plain near the left bank of the Irawadi. The place is surrounded by a lofty brick wall 3 feet thick, with an earthwork in its rear shelving upwards from 30 feet thickness at the base to 6 at the top. There are flanking turrets at every 200 feet, and three gates in each of the mile-long walls enclosing a square. A moat 100 feet broad, always full of water, surrounds the place, and is crossed by five bridges. A great trade is carried on by the river, and overland to the Chinese frontier. *Rangoon* (about 180,000 inhabitants) lies 21 miles upwards from the sea on the Rangoon river, connected with the Irawadi by a navigable creek. This capital of Lower Burma is a modern town on the ancient site of a city called Dagon, in accordance with the name of the great Shwé (Golden) Dagon pagoda already mentioned. This structure, 320 feet in height, is covered with gilding from base to summit, and is the most venerated of Burmese shrines as containing some hairs and other relics of Buddha Gautama. British rule, since 1852, has given to the place an elective municipal government; regular oil-lit streets, river-embankments, five markets, excellent

water, tramways, fine public buildings, including an Anglican cathedral; horticultural gardens, a High School, a hospital, and ample protection in batteries and forts. *Maulmain* (Moulmein, with 56,000 people in 1891), in Tenasserim, is beautifully placed near the mouth of the Salween river, backed by a fine range of hills crowned by the gilded spires of many pagodas, and displaying the picturesque houses of the wealthier residents. The town is the head-quarters of the Amherst District and Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma, and is well supplied with official, religious, educational, and charitable buildings and institutions. The imports and exports have an annual value of about 2 millions sterling. *Prome*, chief town of its district, with about 29,000 inhabitants, is on the left bank of the Irawadi, 160 miles by railway from Rangoon. Almost ruined by fire in 1862, the place is now a flourishing municipal town. *Akyab* (population about 34,000), a prosperous port on the coast in the north of Arakan, has grown up from the dimensions of a fishing-village in 1826; its enormous increase of trade has been already given. It is a municipality with the usual public buildings. *Bassein*, on both banks of its river in the Irawadi delta, with over 28,000 people, lies 75 miles upwards from the sea. Accessible to the largest vessels, the port has made vast progress since 1852, with a great trade in rice, and imports of manufactured goods, salt, coal, and provisions. Recently the total value of the trade, with a ninefold increase in twenty years, exceeded a million sterling. *Bhamo*, on the left bank of the Irawadi, is the starting-point of the trade-route to China, only 40 miles distant to the east. The place is still small, but probably has a considerable future from the recent extension of steamer and railway traffic. The *Mergui Archipelago*, off the coast of Tenasserim, requires some notice. The more northern islands of this extensive group belong to Burma (Mergui District of Tenasserim Division), and are picturesque territory, with mountains rising to 3000 feet. Generally well wooded, they have small streams of pure water, and a few patches of land under the tillage of that region. The fauna include tigers, the rhinoceros, deer, and snakes; the adjacent seas abound in fish and excellent oysters, many of the shells affording pearls of good quality. The scanty population, a harmless and industrious race called Selungs, barter edible birds' nests with Burma, Malacca, and China in exchange for rice and spirits.

The history of CEYLON down to the year 1801 has been given in a previous section of this work. During the earlier years of British occupation, the natives of the interior, the Kandyans, showed much hostility, and on one occasion a body of our troops was treacherously massacred. In 1815 decisive measures were taken with the King of Kandy, a tyrant of the worst Oriental type, whose cruelties had made him hateful to his own subjects, and who had grossly maltreated some natives under British rule. His chief town was occupied by our forces, and he went as a prisoner to Vellore in Madras Presidency, where he died in 1832. The whole island thus came into our possession, and the Kandyan chiefs, or Highlanders, were pacified by a guarantee of civil and religious freedom, with a declaration of inviolable protection for the Buddhist religion, its priests and rites. At that time, the interior of the country was little known, and in 1817 Dr. Davy, brother of Sir Humphry, met with the utmost difficulties in making an expedition through the island. The greater part of the mountainous centre was impassable, covered with unbroken, impenetrable forest, never trodden by any European. Herds of elephants, bears and tigers, boars and elks were the only tenants of these wilds save savage hordes of the outcasts called Veddahs, of aboriginal descent, some of whom still live in the eastern part of the island. There was no road of any kind, no bridge to span the streams falling in cataracts down the gorges of the hills. In 1817 a rebellion of the natives of the interior caused a two-years' vain struggle to expel British power from their mountain fastnesses.

The beginnings of permanent order and of development of the resources of Ceylon came with the advent to power as Governor of Sir Edward Barnes, who held office from 1820 to 1822 and again from January, 1824 to October 1831. Sir Edward saw at once that, instead of money being yearly wasted on hill-forts and garrisons, a judicious expenditure would open the whole country by military roads which would contribute both to its security and its enrichment. In this great work he and his successors for nearly fifty years were chiefly indebted to the rare ability, perseverance, and energy of the late Major Skinner, C.M.G., who retired in 1867 from service in Ceylon as Surveyor-general and Commissioner of Public Works. In 1819, the year when "Tom Skinner", as this distinguished and most efficient public servant, justly popular with

natives and Europeans, was generally styled, arrived in the island, a lad of fifteen, as ensign in the Ceylon Rifles, the country, never till then surveyed for correct mapping, could scarcely be said to possess a road. He was soon selected by the Governor as the pioneer in the creation of communications for troops and ordinary traffic, and he lived to see, mainly as his own achievement, a splendid network of roads spread over the country from the sea-level to the passes of the highest mountain-ranges. Instead of dangerous fords and ferries, where property and life were often sacrificed, every chief stream in the island had been substantially bridged with structures of stone or iron. In 1867, there were nearly 3000 miles of made roads, one-fifth consisting of first-class metalled highways, and another fifth of excellent gravelled work. The first line of good macadamized road was completed from Colombo to Kandy, a distance of 72 miles, and in 1832 a vehicle which a good authority declares to be "the first mail-coach in Asia" began to run between the towns. In order to complete this subject of communications in Ceylon, we may note that a railway from Colombo to Kandy was opened in 1867, and recently there were 230 miles open for traffic, 39 miles under construction, and 215 miles projected and surveyed; the existing lines are built on a 5-foot 6-inch gauge, all being owned and worked by the Government. Of the 3200 miles of road, more than half are metalled, exclusive of roads within municipal limits. The wear and tear, from traffic and climate, are very great, and no pains and expense are spared in maintenance. Every male inhabitant, between 18 and 55 years of age, is bound to perform yearly six days' labour on the roads, or to make a payment, in different parts of the island, of from one to two rupees. The colony also has 162 miles of canal, and the transmission of news is aided by over 1500 miles of telegraph-wire, with the telephone in Colombo, and by about 190 post-offices of which 34 are telegraphic stations. Under the rule of Sir Henry Ward, from 1855 to 1860 and of Sir Hercules Robinson (1865–1871) and his successor, Sir William Gregory, much good work was done in the construction and restoration of irrigation-works, including village-tanks. Large waste districts in the east and south of the island were thus placed under perennial rice-culture, greatly to the benefit of the people. Sir Arthur Gordon (1883–1890) was most energetic in this direction, restoring

an old aqueduct and its connected channels, along a distance of 54 miles, up to the ancient capital, Anuradjapura. The expense of irrigation is made a regular part of the annual budget, and a large portion of the revenue is yearly devoted to public works of drainage, water-supply, and communication.

When we turn to some account of the geography, scenery, and climate of this very beautiful and productive colony, we find that Ceylon, pear-shaped, or, as the natives love to call it, pearl-shaped in the fashion of one of their elongated gems, stretches due south from off the south-east coast of India to within 6 degrees of the equator, with a length of 266 miles down to Dondra Head, and a breadth of 140 at the widest part, eastwards from Colombo. The area is 24,700 square miles, which means that the island is one-sixth less than Ireland, and about as large as Belgium and Holland together. The channel called Palk's Strait, after one of the Dutch governors, divides the north-western coast from India, with a width of less than forty miles between the western coast of the island of Manaar, off Ceylon, to the mainland. This width is again diminished by over one-half in the outstretching from India of the island of Rameswaram, and the rest of the distance is occupied by the ridge of sand and rocks, about 17 miles in length, called Adam's Bridge, with only three or four feet of water covering it at high tide, and this only in some places. Two telegraph-cables across the strait bring Ceylon into connection with London, and a project has been recently mooted for a railway-line which would bring Colombo into direct communication with all parts of India. The south of the island is mountainous, with one peak about 8300 feet in height, ten mountains (including Adam's Peak, of 7350 feet, equidistant from Colombo and Kandy) exceeding 7000, and over twenty rising to above a mile. An undulating coast-land, of coral formations covered by alluvial deposits brought by marine currents from the Indian shores, runs round the north and north-east. The largest of many fair-sized rivers is the Mahavila-ganga, rising near Adam's Peak, and entering the sea, after a north-easterly course of 135 miles, by several branches near Trincomalee. About four-fifths of the surface of the country are level or undulating.

The climate varies with the elevation, the western and southern coasts having a moist enervating heat throughout the year, with a

range of ten degrees, and a mean of nearly 81. At Kandy, 1665 feet above sea-level, the range is only a little over 4 degrees, with a mean of 76 for the year. At the hill-station of Nuwara-Eliya, about 6200 feet above sea-level, there is a mean temperature of 57½ degrees, and a maximum of 70. The northern and eastern plains have a dry heat, but the sea-breezes render a high temperature much less oppressive than in most parts of India, the cool time being from May to October, when the showers are frequent and the sea-wind steady. The rainfall varies from 30 in the north to above 100 inches on the west coast and in the hills, with nearly double that amount on particular spots. The destructive effects of damp heat and of insects are displayed in the mildew which rots paper and leather, the rusting of iron and steel-work, the fungus which covers all clothes made of cloth, and the attacks made on various materials by ants black and red, termites (the so-called "white ants"), paper-mites, weevils, and enormous cockroaches. Every European house in Colombo has on its staff of servants the "clothes-boy" whose special duty is to air beds, clothes, linen, papers, and other articles every day in the sun, and keep them free from mould. Among the horrors of Ceylon, to people who have lived in temperate climes, are what Haeckel calls "the much-to-be-execrated land-leeches, one of the intolerable curses of this beautiful island, of all its plagues the worst". Swarming in myriads in every wood and bush, except near the sea and on the highest mountains, they drop on the head and neck of the passer-by; they creep up his legs, and swell in size, after sucking their fill, from a thread-like creature half an inch long to the dimensions of an ordinary leech. They wriggle through the elastic texture of a stocking, and the only means by which one can be rid of the plague is a drop of lemon-juice, or of carbolic acid, one of which remedies is always carried by prudent persons taking a walk in Ceylon. Fresh bites on a spot already inflamed by leeches may become dangerous to life, and the British troops, in 1815, lost many men from this cause in their toilsome march for weeks through the dense jungle of the damp hill-country as they advanced on Kandy. Leech-gaiters of india-rubber, covering the shoes and secured above the knees, are the resource of Europeans in the districts most infested by these creatures. Scorpions six inches, and millipedes a foot long, both dangerous

in their attacks, with mosquitoes and many stinging flies, are to be reckoned with by visitors in Ceylon.

On the other side of the account, who shall dream of fitly painting in words the charms of scenery in a region that, to the approaching voyager, rises on the view with forests of perennial green, towering grandly up from height to height till they are lost in crowns of cloud or wreaths of mist? Drawing nearer, he gazes on a sea of sapphire blue dashing here against battlements of rock, streaming there with snowy surf over a girdle of golden sands shaded by groves of stately palms of varied aspect in foliage and stem. On the south-west coast, from Colombo to Matura, on the western side of Dondra Head, the densely-peopled, highly-tilled district is one endless village of huts and fruit-gardens, jungle and cocoa-nut groves, bread-fruit and mango, and many other useful and beautiful trees, where the people are lying stretched on benches before their dwellings, idly happy, and naked children are playing in the road. So abundant is the foliage in the gardens round the huts that the stranger would fancy himself in a wild spot of the forest, and in the true forest close at hand, the orchids, lilies, mallows, cloves, and other gorgeous flowering plants make the scene that of a rich and lovely garden. Near Galle, on the south-west coast, the rocks have a wonderful abundance of splendid corals, and the marine specimens are very striking.

The prevailing green hue of Ceylon, with no monotony of effect, but with marvellous gradations and modifications of tone, largely extends to living creatures such as birds and lizards, butterflies and beetles, fishes and crustacea, sea-anemones and sea-worms, while the dark-green forest as a background gives a more vivid splendour to the brilliant reds, yellows, violets, and blues of many insects and birds. Amidst its many charms, the inland scenery displays deep ravines on the slopes of the hills, with foaming streams that often break, in their descent, into cataracts embowered in ferneries and jungle-growths. The Botanical Garden at Peradenia, near Kandy, shows all the best flora of the island in a fine avenue of old india-rubber trees, with their enormous crown of leaves on horizontal boughs spreading from 40 to 50 feet on every side, and their circles of roots, from 100 to 200 feet in diameter, stretching out like huge creeping snakes from the base of the trunk, or rising

erect like the banyan-roots, but growing close enough to form little rooms or sentry-boxes; in clumps composed of every indigenous and of many foreign palms, wreathed with flowering creepers, and with parasitical ferns; in vanilla, orchids, magnificent fuchsias, and other gaudy blooms; and in thickets of gigantic bamboos more than a hundred feet in height, with stems from one to two feet in thickness. The animal world or fauna of Ceylon is disappointing to the zoologist who looks for variety corresponding to that of the vegetation, or for any wealth of ornamental, large, or singular forms. The flying-fox, a large fruit-eating bat, resembling a fox in shape, colour, and size, is a remarkable specimen. The snakes include the deadly cobra; the leopard and bear are the only larger carnivora. The elephant, chiefly a tuskless variety, is found in the forests; deer, buffaloes, and the Indian humped ox are plentiful. Among 320 species of birds, the robin, thrush, and oriole are heard on both hill and plain; eagles, peregrine falcons, and owls; swallows, kingfishers, parroquets, and crows; pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, and countless aquatic birds, including the flamingo, are found. The crocodile haunts the more secluded parts of rivers. There are five species of monkeys, and the mammalia include a very common and charming little squirrel, a friendly and confiding creature, bustling about bush and tree, of a brownish gray, with three white bands on his back. The carriage and riding animals are Burmese ponies or Australian or Indian horses imported from their native regions. Horse-breeding does not succeed, and European horses droop and die. There are no donkeys, and the zebu (Indian humped ox) is used by natives in their carts. Dogs abound, and small black pigs; the goats and sheep are comparatively few; there are abundant cocks and hens, fewer ducks and geese.

The number of people in Ceylon, by the census of 1891, just exceeded 3 millions in the nine provinces, of which the most densely populated are the *Central*, *Southern*, and *Western*. As regards race, the British were 6068; 21,230 were of European descent; 2,041,000 were Singhalese (Cingalese); 724,000 Tamils; 216,000 of other races, including Moormen, Malays, and a few thousands of the decaying Veddahs. Nearly 30 per cent of the whole population are engaged in agriculture; 103,000 in industry (handicrafts); 121,000 in trade. The annual death rate per thou-

sand in 1892 was 27·2, varying from 19·2 in the Western Province to 56·3 in the North Central, where the whole population is only 75,000. The people mainly of Aryan race, the true Singhalese, descendants of the Hindu immigrants who, in the sixth century B.C., came from the valley of the Ganges and settled in the island, are chiefly found in the south and west. Their language is of Aryan origin, closely allied to the Pali. The men are more comely than the women, and have, in their younger days, a poetical beauty of expression in the finely-cut mouth, and dark inspired-looking eyes, set in an oval face framed by thick long jet-black hair. The limbs are slender, and the whole form is often full of grace as a Greek statue. The dress of males, a waist-cloth much like a petticoat, gives them a womanish appearance which is heightened by the turning-back of the hair from the brow and its confinement with combs, and by the earrings which they wear. The Malabars or Tamils, speaking Tamil, a wholly distinct language from that of the Singhalese, are found in the north and east, and over a large part of the central highlands, being descendants of the conquerors from southern India, chiefly from the Malabar coast, mentioned in our first notice of Ceylon. In stature, features, colour, manners, and customs they show their Dravidian descent, being tall and brawny, very dark in hue, coffee-coloured or blackish, as contrasted with the slighter, smaller, light-brown Singhalese. The people "of European descent" include the class called "burghers", descended from the old Portuguese and Dutch colonists, with some infusion of Singhalese or Tamil blood. Those who are of Portuguese origin are chiefly artisans and tradesmen, while many of the Dutch race rise higher in the social scale and hold responsible official posts, both classes being much employed as accountants and clerks, and as inferior government-officials. The Singhalese are represented by an eminent German naturalist and traveller (Haeckel) as lazy, stolid and indifferent, cunning cheats, and liars of the first proficiency. Crimes of violence are very rare, and their love of music and dancing accords with the usual gentleness and amiability of their character. Major Skinner, with half a century's experience of the country, describes the people as shrewd, clever, and tractable; as quick and accurate observers; as ready to confide in and be guided by rulers whom they perceive to really feel an interest in their welfare, and to be capable of advancing it. The "Moormen"

or "Moors" are the most active and intelligent of the natives, specially sharp in money-matters, and having in their hands a large share of both the wholesale and the petty trade. They are Indo-Arabs in descent, Mohammedans in religion, with a language that is Arabic infused with Tamil. We may note also that the Singhalese, shunning all hard toil, are chiefly engaged in rice-growing, and the planting of palms, bananas, and other trees needing culture, while the sturdy Tamils or Malabars turn to road-making, masonry, and porterage in the low country, and to labour in the plantations of the higher region. In religion, there are nearly one million Buddhists, mostly Singhalese; about 620,000 Hindus, chiefly Malabars; 212,000 Mohammedans, and above 300,000 Christians.

Among the products of Ceylon we turn first to coffee, for the growth of which about 43,000 acres were recently under cultivation out of the (nearly) 2,100,000 acres tilled in the whole colony. The plant is said to have been introduced at an early date by the Arabs, but seems to have been first cultivated in any systematic fashion about 1740, by the Dutch settlers. Little success was obtained, and coffee-planting was only started as a great and lucrative industry when the enterprising Sir Edward Barnes, in 1825, proved that the soil and climate of the hill-country were specially favourable. He formed a plantation near Paradenia, and the forests were soon invaded by an army of coffee-planters, who swept a vast area clear of trees by felling the upper ranks and sending their weight crashing down on the half-severed lower trunks until the whole wood crashed and slipped like an avalanche down into the valley. The burning of this mass of timber produced excellent soil for coffee, and, when large profits had been secured, there was a rush of speculation, a "coffee-mania", which caused the loss of millions sterling, between 1845 and 1850, to those who were devoid of the needful prudence and skill. A revival came in 1854, and the next twenty years were Ceylon's golden age in the coffee-market. Then natural foes—the rat, the coffee-bug, and vegetable parasites—made themselves felt, and sheer destruction came in a microscopic fungus first observed on the leaves of coffee-plants in 1869. This terrible disease, for which no remedy could be devised, spread with such rapidity that the plantations were, on a large scale, uprooted by the owners, and the exports fell from over one million cwts. in 1869, valued at four

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The Pearl of the Eastern Seas, as Ceylon is called, is situated in the Indian Ocean, to the south of the Peninsula, and almost connected with the mainland by a chain of low coral reefs and sandbanks. The soil is extremely fertile, and even in the hill regions the ground is covered by a rich and varied vegetation. Formerly the chief wealth of the island was derived from the growing of cinnamon and coffee, but in recent years there has been a very rapid and extensive development in the cultivation of tea, and the best quality is of exquisite flavour. In plucking the leaf from the plant the thumb-nail is used, and the leaf must not be torn. The garden must be plucked in regular rotation every ten days or a fortnight; and when the plants are flushing well, the coolie (as in the illustration) can bring in to be weighed about 30 lbs. of green leaf in a day.

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millions sterling, to only 43,000 cwts., worth about £200,000, in 1892. The colony was fortunate in being able to substitute for coffee the plant whose leaves furnish the rival beverage. The progress of tea-planting in Ceylon has been one of the prodigies of modern industry and trade in colonial produce. About 1880, large quantities of Assam tea-seed were being imported from Calcutta, as it had been found that the plant flourished from gardens on the western coast scarcely above sea-level up to nearly 7000 feet elevation. A rush was made for tea-planting; first-class prizes were taken at the Melbourne, Calcutta, and other Exhibitions; Ceylon tea secured British approval; the natives began to drink it largely in place of coffee—in a word, Ceylon tea, in theatrical phrase, fairly "caught on". The tea plantations now cover fully 270,000 acres; the exports rose from 23 pounds in 1873 to nearly 8 million pounds in 1886, and that to over 82 millions in recent years. As there is no winter in Ceylon to check vegetation, tea is made for market throughout the year. Since the failure of coffee the island has also come into the field of commerce with the material for the third great beverage, cacao or cocoa. Only limited areas of the country are suited to the growth of the *Theobroma cacao*, which needs a depth of good soil, and shelter from the wind, but the Ceylon produce soon fetched the highest price in the market, as equal to the best cocoa from Trinidad, and, with about 20,000 acres under this tillage, nearly 20,000 cwts. are now exported. Rice and other grains, forming the chief food of the natives, along with fish and fruits, are raised on about 720,000 acres of land; 11,500 are under cinchona (quinine), another of the substitutes when coffee failed; and tobacco, mostly consumed on the spot, is grown on about 10,000 acres. The Ceylon cinnamon, known to the Romans through the Arab caravan-traders, and still regarded as the best in the world, is grown on over 40,000 acres, with export valued at nearly £117,250. The cocoa-nut palm trees, chiefly in native hands, create a very important branch of the Singhalese commerce. About 40 millions of trees, on nearly 500,000 acres of land, produced each from 80 to 100 nuts, of which many millions are exported. The chief trade, however, is in the coir, raw fibre, rope, and yarn, and in the oil extracted from the broken shell, the export of which last, of late, exceeded £346,000 in value. The dried kernel, called *copra*, is largely

sent to India for food, and to the British Isles, France, and Russia as food for cattle, and to be pressed for oil.

The minerals include, in small or large numbers, sapphires, cat's-eyes, rubies, amethysts, topazes, and moonstones, and, with a real commercial importance, plumbago or graphite of the best quality, used in making crucibles, stove-polish, lead-pencils, type-metal, and paint. Ceylon furnishes the British Isles with their chief supply, from mines, entirely in native hands, in the Western and North-Western provinces. The industry dates from about 1850, and has had so large an increase of late years that recently the exports of plumbago reached more than 430,000 cwts., valued at £278,000, of which the United Kingdom received about one-third. Excellent iron-ore abounds, but cannot be worked to profit on a large scale from the expense of fuel, and is only used by the natives to a small extent for their own rude implements. The ancient and famous pearl-fisheries of Ceylon are mainly carried on near Aripo, on the north-west coast, in the Gulf of Manaar. They are now a Government-monopoly, the native divers receiving as pay about one-third of the produce. This is of a very fluctuating nature; in 1891, with a very rich result, the public revenue gained nearly a million rupees; in the following year the product was *nil.* We may observe that the weights and measures of this colony are the same as ours at home, and that the coinage is on the decimal system, with the rupee divided into cents instead of into annas and pice. The chief imports are rice and other grain from India; cotton-goods, coal and coke, machinery and iron, salt fish and spirits, to a total value of over £4,000,000. In this trade, Great Britain exported goods to the value of over £1,000,000. The Ceylon exports have now a value of nearly 4 millions sterling, in produce of which the United Kingdom received the worth of over 2¾ millions. There is abundant steam-communication by sea through various Ocean-lines, the *P. and O.*, the *Orient, the Messageries Maritimes*, the *Austro-Hungarian Lloyd*, the "*Clan*" *Line*, the *Nord-Deutscher Lloyd*, the *British India* (with Mauritius), and others. Recently the revenue just exceeded 18½ millions of rupees, chiefly derived from customs-duties (nearly 4½ millions); sales of Crown-land; licenses (practically the product of tax on spirituous liquors), about 2,200,000 rupees; salt (a Government-monopoly) and timber, 1,315,000 Rs.; port and harbour dues, over

¾ million Rs.; railway-receipts, over 4½ million Rs.; and stamps, nearly 1½ million Rs. The expenditure of 17¾ million Rs. included 5 million Rs. for cost of government in civil, judicial, and other establishments; 1¼ million Rs. for military charges; nearly 2 million Rs. interest on loans; and over 3 million Rs. on public works, including irrigation. The three municipalities of Ceylon—Colombo, Kandy, and Galle,—and the Local Boards at 13 other towns, raise nearly 2 millions of rupees in rates.

As regards administration, Ceylon is a "Crown-Colony", with a non-representative system of rule which includes the Governor; an Executive Council of five members composed of the Colonial Secretary (also Lieutenant-Governor), the Commander of the troops, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer, and the Auditor-General; and a Legislative Council of 17 nominated members, including the Executive Council, four other officials, and eight non-official gentlemen. The civil law is based on the Roman-Dutch law, much modified by Colonial ordinances; the criminal law has been brought into harmony with the famous Indian Penal Code. The machinery of justice includes a Supreme Court, with decision of appeals in civil and criminal cases; Courts of Requests and Police Courts respectively for minor civil and criminal affairs; and District Courts, with a criminal jurisdiction intermediate between the Police and the Supreme Courts, and a general civil jurisdiction. Village Councils, instituted in 1871, have proved very useful, being well adapted to native character and needs, in local affairs that include improvements, small offences, and petty civil claims. The people have shown themselves to be alive to the value of education. In the higher class, great progress has been made, and many Singhalese gentlemen are in good positions in the legal and medical professions. A Government Department of Education has for about 30 years fostered elementary instruction, with due inspection and "payment by results", and the Village Councils have in many cases undertaken the expense of providing and maintaining vernacular schools, and have even applied the principle of compulsion. In 1892, above half a million rupees were expended on 453 Government schools, and on over 1000 "Grant-in-aid" schools, while about 2400 non-aided establishments give education to 33,600 scholars out of the whole number of 158,500 in 1892, or about 1 in 20 of the population. The "Royal College" is the

Government high school in British culture, with a scholarship of £150 a year for four years awarded to students for education at a British university. Other high schools for British studies receive grants in aid. The standard of proficiency and of due emulation is maintained by annual examinations held in connection with the "Cambridge Locals" and the London University. Agricultural and industrial schools complete the machinery devised for the improvement and welfare of native dwellers in Ceylon. Each of the nine provinces is directly supervised by a Government Agent, with his staff of assistants and "headmen". A large number (about 160) of hospitals and dispensaries, two asylums (for lunatics and lepers), and nearly 150 medical officers, are maintained by the Government at an annual cost of over 880,000 rupees. The whole of Ceylon forms one diocese, that of the Bishop of Colombo, as regards adherents of the Anglican Church, subject to the Bishop of Calcutta as metropolitan. Active work is carried on by the various missionary societies, Anglican and Non-conformist, and by the priesthood of the Roman Catholic Church. The island is garrisoned, under the charge of a Major-General, by about 1650 British infantry, artillery, and engineers, with a force of about 1200 local volunteers. The fine and strongly-fortified harbour of Trincomalee, on the eastern coast, is the head-quarters of our fleet in the East Indies, and the harbour of Colombo, on the south-west coast, is being also protected with earthworks and heavy guns at joint colonial and imperial cost.

Of the Ceylon towns *Colombo*, the capital, has a population of about 127,000. In the fourteenth century it was described by John Batuta, an Arab traveller and geographer, as the finest city of Serendib (Ceylon); the Portuguese changed the Arab designation Kalambu, itself a corruption of a native name from that of the river Kalany, into Colombo, in honour of the great Genoese navigator. The European business-quarter, with the usual public buildings, is called "The Fort", and is surrounded by several suburbs inhabited by the natives. The evening-resort of fashionable people is the broad green lawn of the esplanade called "Galle face", where the long tract of coast towards Galle begins. The Governor's residence, styled "the Queen's House", is a fine spacious structure embowered in tropical vegetation. A suburb called Kolupitya or Colpetty, between the sandy sea-shore and the

highroad to Galle, contains many beautiful villas, with charming gardens, inhabited by wealthy residents; the district extends to the famous groves, now divided into the private grounds of luxurious houses, still called Cinnamon Gardens. A wide lagoon, with many little bays fringed with gardens where the foliage is crowned by the feathery tufts of cocoa-nut palms, affords scope for sailing, and commands a fine view of the distant mountain-chain with the cone of Adam's Peak towering aloft. At the cost of nearly 4½ millions of rupees, a great reservoir has been formed 25 miles away, with pipes conducting the supply of water to a service-reservoir for distribution through the town. Since 1882 Colombo, devoid of a good natural harbour, has superseded Galle as a port of call for steamers and as a coaling-station, and the commerce of the place has greatly increased. The fine natural basin of Galle has its entrance impeded by rocks and coral reefs, and the construction of an artificial harbour at Colombo by means of the great breakwater caused the change. This work, begun in 1874, and completed with a vast expenditure, is composed of a huge mound of rubble brought up to 24 feet below low-water mark, with a superstructure of concrete blocks, each 35 tons in weight, set on edge. The breakwater thus formed runs out from the shore for 1400 yards, with a slight curve at the end, and protects a water-area of 500 acres. Shallow portions of the harbour have been dredged, and 25 large ocean-steamers can now be moored at the buoys in from 30 to 40 feet of water; at low water, a great number of vessels can find from 6 to 26 feet in depth.

Kandy (with 20,000 inhabitants) contains the ruins of the former native king's palace, and a famous Buddhist temple with a much-venerated "tooth of Buddha", a bit of ivory two inches long and one inch thick. The British governor has a residence there; the situation and surroundings of the place in no wise deserve, according to Haeckel, the enthusiastic praise of Sir Emerson Tennent in his delightful and valuable work on Ceylon; the "beautiful lake" is really nothing but a small rectangular artificial "tank". *Trincomalee,* with its grand double harbour on the north-east coast, land-locked and accessible for all craft in all weathers, is a plain modern town with a fine esplanade. The place is unsuited for commercial purposes by lying out of the track of trade, and, with a population of about 11,500, depends chiefly upon its official

residents and naval dockyard. *Galle* (33,500 people), on a low rocky promontory lying west of a bay open to the south, derives its name from the Singhalese word "Galla", meaning "rocks", Punto Galla, "Rocky Point", being turned into French as "Point de Galle". The fall of this famous, ancient, and important town from its place of pride has been above noted. Two thousand years ago, the Arabian merchant-ships from the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf traded here with the Malays of the Eastern Archipelago. The town, however, still ranks second to Colombo, and is the natural depôt for the export-trade of the rich products of the southern districts. The botany and marine zoology of the shores are very interesting. *Jaffna* (Jaffnapatam), on an island of that name north of Ceylon, with a population of 43,000, is a very ancient town and port inhabited by Tamils (Malabars) and by many people of Dutch descent, the sway of whose ancestors is indicated by the names of neighbouring islands, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Haarlem, Middelburg, and Delft. *Newera Ellia* ("the city of light"), the chief summer-resort of Ceylon, has been already named. There the houses, situated at over 6000 feet above the sea, have chimneys for the fires that are lighted almost every morning and evening in the living-rooms, for the comfort of dwellers in a climate where the European, worn with the heat of the plains, finds the comfort of cool nights, and sometimes, early in the year, views with delight, if he rise betimes, hoar-frost on the grass, or finds a film of ice on water-jars placed outside to cool. The town stands in an elliptical mountain-valley from one to two miles across, with mountains around that rise from 1500 to 2000 feet above the level of the plateau. The low temperature, at so moderate a height as 6000 feet, in a latitude but seven degrees from the equator, is due to excessive evaporation by day and rapid cooling at night by radiation. The air is always damp, the valley being often filled all day with dense clouds, and the heavy rainfall creating springs and rivulets whose waters run down the slopes, maintain a luxuriant vegetation, and feed the little lake which occupies the southern half of the plateau. Newera Ellia often reminds the British traveller or resident of the Scottish Highlands. It was discovered by some British officers who were hunting elephants, in 1826, and Sir Edward Barnes, on their report, built a bungalow for his own use, and in 1829 opened a sanitarium for the British

troops. The favourite time for visitors is the dry season, from January to April; the south-west monsoon makes it scarcely habitable.

The *Maldives* or *Maldive Islands*, a coral chain extending for 550 miles, in seventeen groups of several hundred islets, south-west of Cape Comorin, are inhabited by Mohammedans akin in race and language to the Singhalese. The territory is tributary to Ceylon, whither the native Sultan sends an annual embassy. Malé, or Mali, the chief island, where the Sultan lives, is but 1 mile long by ¾ mile broad, with a population of 2000. The kindly and well-conducted natives live on imported rice, fish, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and various vegetables and fruits, and they export cocoa-nuts, *copra*, coir, cowries, and tortoise-shell. British supremacy was a transference to us of the former Dutch suzerainty.

The Straits Settlements consist of Singapore, Penang, Province Wellesley, The Dindings, Malacca, Christmas Island, the Keeling or Cocos Isles, and various "Protected States". Of all these possessions, by far the most important is the island of *Singapore*, 27 miles long and 14 wide, separated from the southern coast of the Malay Peninsula by a strait less than a mile in breadth. With an area of 206 square miles, this charming little territory, partly fringed with coral reefs, presents a coast-line varied by brown rocky cliffs and by grand tropical woods running down to the water's edge, and dipping their foliage in a glassy sea studded with green islets, sun-lit by day and warmed in never-ending summer, perfumed at night by the odours which the land-breeze gently breathes over the waters from the ever-blooming flowers of shrub and tree. The surface of the country undulates in hill and dale, with a natural or cultivated growth of cocoa-nut palms, pine-apples, tapioca, aloes, and Liberian coffee, and fauna that include monkeys, sloths, wild hogs, deer, squirrels, some of the European birds—falcons, owls, partridges, pheasants, woodpeckers, herons and other wading-birds,—with pea-fowl, pelicans, and parrots; and, among reptiles, turtles, crocodiles, and some poisonous snakes. The climate is hot, moist, equable, and healthy, with cool and refreshing nights, and an atmosphere rarely stirred by storms. The mean annual temperature is about 80, and there is no distinction of wet and dry seasons, the annual rainfall of from 90 to 120 inches being fairly distributed over the year.

The modern and only real history of Singapore begins with

the action of that able and enterprising Englishman Sir Stamford Raffles. Born in 1781, a sea-captain's son, off Port Morant in Jamaica, he became an East India House clerk in London, and went out to Penang in 1805 as assistant-secretary. He took an early interest in Malacca, which he visited in 1808; he accompanied Lord Minto, Governor-General of India, as secretary on the victorious expedition to Java in 1811, and was then appointed Lieutenant-Governor of that great island and its dependencies. During his tenure of office until 1816, he gained the esteem and love of the native population, but all his work in Java, so far as the interests of his country were concerned, was undone by the restoration of the territory to the Dutch in 1817. After visiting England for the recruiting of his health, receiving knighthood, and writing his *History of Java*, Raffles was selected to form a new settlement in Singapore, with the double view of checking Malayan piracy, and of entering into commercial competition with the Dutch in that part of the East. In 1819 the town of Singapore was founded on the south-east coast, and five years later the island was purchased from the Sultan of Johore, the ruler of the opposite mainland, for £13,500 paid down, and a life annuity of £5400. A better bargain was never made by Great Britain. In 1824, Sir Stamford Raffles, from a second failure of health, was obliged to start again for England. After escaping, near Sumatra, from a fire on the ship in which he had embarked, and thus losing a fine natural history collection, and linguistic and historical notes concerning the Eastern Archipelago, he reached London to become the first president of the Zoological Society, of which he was a chief founder, and died on the anniversary of his birthday, July 5th, 1826, in the very prime, reckoned by years, of his admirable life.

With a steady growth, and very swiftly of later years, Singapore has mounted to her present height of prosperity as a grand emporium and entrepôt of commerce in the East Indies, the seat of an enormous transit-trade between the British Isles and the east of Asia, and between China and India on the north of the equator, and Australia in the south. This capital of the Straits Settlements, strongly fortified and garrisoned, provided with handsome public buildings and needful establishments of every class, has a mixed population of about 160,000, including about 1300 Europeans, 90,000 Chinese, 25,000 Malays, and 12,000 natives of

India, the diversity of religious faiths being indicated by Chinese joss-houses, Hindu temples, Mohammedan mosques, and two Christian cathedrals. The sea-front, with its three miles of wharves, coaling-station, naval arsenal, commercial docks, four graving-docks, stores, and dwelling-houses, extends over more than six miles of ground, and the place is provided with 12 miles of steam-tramway, telephones, telegraph-cables giving access to all parts of the civilized world, and communications for trade and travel by many lines of ocean-steamers. The island of Singapore produces gambier, or pale catechu, an article greatly used in tanning and dyeing, being a light-brown astringent substance obtained by boiling the leaves of a certain plant. The town has large works for smelting tin mined in Malacca. The imports from Great Britain into the Straits Settlements recently reached a value of nearly £2,100,000, chiefly in coal and manufactured goods. Our imports from the same quarter, in tin, spices, gambier and its allied substance, cutch or catechu, gutta-percha, hides, tapioca, coffee, copra, and sago, amounted to nearly five millions sterling. This, however, gives but a small idea of the trade of Singapore, receiving manufactured goods from the west, and distributing them in the Eastern seas, and collecting produce from all that quarter of the world, continent and countless islands, for transmission to the European, Australian, and American markets. With commerce drawn thither by total freedom from import and export duties, and from every burden on shipping save the trifling tax of 1*d.* per ton register for support of the many lighthouses in those intricate and perilous waters, Singapore alone has yearly imported goods to the value of nearly 21½ millions sterling, while her exports have exceeded the worth of 19½ millions.

An account of *Penang* and *Wellesley Province* down to the year 1801 has been already given. In 1805, Penang became a separate Presidency under the East India Company, ranking with Madras and Bombay. In 1826, Singapore and Malacca were made subordinate to the Governor of Penang; five years later, Penang and Wellesley Province became subject to Singapore, whither the seat of rule was transferred. The island of Penang, officially called Prince of Wales Island, is 15 miles long and from 5 to 10 broad, with an area of 107 square miles, lying off the west-coast of the Malay Peninsula, at the head of Malacca Strait. Three-fifths of

the area is hilly, with a sanatorium on the highest point, nearly 3000 feet above sea-level. Tropical forest and jungle cover the country, with abundance of cocoa-nut and areca palms, the latter producing the fruit whose kernel is called betel-nut because, mixed into a pellet with a little lime, pieces are chewed along with the leaf of a creeping plant, a species of pepper, called betel, whence "Pulo Penang", "Betel-nut Island", has its name. The climate resembles that of Singapore. A strait from two to ten miles broad divides the island from Wellesley Province, which extends for 45 miles along the coast of the mainland, with an area of 370 square miles. Sugar, rice, tapioca, and cocoa-nuts are the chief produce of the latter territory, Penang being still to a large extent untilled. We must mention with these the territory styled *The Dindings*, consisting of the island of Pangkor, about 70 miles south of Penang, and a strip of the opposite mainland, with a total area of 200 square miles. The chief present product in this quarter is the timber hewn by Chinese cutters in the extensive forests, paying a royalty to the British Government. The population of all these territories —Penang, Wellesley Province, and the Dindings—amounted lately to above 235,000, of whom nearly half were Malays, 88,000 Chinese, and 36,000 natives of India. The transit-trade of Penang declined with the rise of Singapore, but the island has a very extensive commerce as a shipping centre for the products of the northern parts of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula, lately much increased by the development of important tin-mines in some of the central native states. Recently the total value of imports and exports, in nearly equal shares, reached about 16 millions sterling. The capital, George Town, with 26,000 people, lies on the north-east coast, with some forts for the defence of the town and shipping.

The largest of the Straits Settlements is *Malacca*, situated on the western coast of the peninsula, 110 miles north-west from Singapore. The area is about 660 square miles, and the population of 92,000 includes 70,000 Malays, 18,000 Chinese, and 1650 natives of India. The annual value of the trade, in imports and exports, the latter including tapioca and tin, exceeds £600,000. This old European colony in the East, founded by the Portuguese in 1511, under the rule of Albuquerque, was held by them till 1641, when the Dutch drove them out and remained in possession till

1795. Conquered by the British, Malacca was in our hands till 1818, when it was restored to the Dutch. In 1824, it became finally our possession by exchange for the East India Company's settlement at Bencoolen, on the south-west coast of Sumatra. The other dependencies of the Straits Settlements forming part of our Empire in the full sense are the *Keeling* or *Cocos Isles* and *Christmas Island.* The former are a group of coral islets in the Indian Ocean, in 12° s. lat., about 700 miles s.w. of Sumatra. They were discovered by Captain Keeling in 1609, and visited in 1836 by Charles Darwin, who on his observations made there based his theory concerning the formation of coral reefs. A few hundreds of Malays form the population, and the exports consist of cocoa-nuts, copra, and cocoa-nut oil. Formally annexed in 1857, they were placed in 1886 under the administration of the Governor of the Straits Settlements. Pigs, rats, poultry, and abundant crabs are the fauna of the Keelings. Christmas Island, of coral formation surrounded by rocks, nine miles long and about the same in width, lies 200 miles s.w. of Java, and was annexed in January 1889 as a possible station for a telegraph-cable between India and Australia. A settlement from the Keeling Isles has been recently formed.

The whole population of the Straits Settlements in British occupation amounted in 1891 to 512,000, of whom about 3500 are Europeans, about 40,000 natives of India, and the rest equally divided between Malays and Chinese. In addition to a garrison, at Singapore, of infantry, artillery, fortress-engineers, and submarine miners, with two companies of infantry at Penang, the colony has a small force of volunteer artillery, and an armed police force of 35 officers and 2000 men. In 1867, an Order in Council, based upon statute, transferred the control of the Settlements from the Indian Government to the Colonial Secretary, and in 1885 the existing arrangement of affairs was made. The administration is in charge of a Governor and an Executive Council of eight chief officials, including the general officer in command of the troops, and the "Resident Councillors" of Penang and Malacca, who are in special charge of those territories. Municipal bodies, partly chosen by ratepayers, partly nominated by the Governor, direct local matters in each separate settlement. The Legislative Council, with the Governor as president, consists of 10 official and 7 non-

official members, five of the latter nominated by the Crown and two chosen by the Chambers of Commerce at Singapore and Penang. There is the usual apparatus for the administration of civil and criminal justice, controlled by a Supreme Court with a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, the law being that of England in 1826, modified by Indian Acts passed prior to 1867, and by local statutes made since that date. For the settlement of maritime matters a Vice-Admiralty Court sits at Singapore and Penang. The annual revenue, mainly derived from stamps and licenses for opium and spirit dealing, is about £800,000, with an expenditure of about £750,000, largely devoted to public works and military charges. There are nearly 200 schools, partly supported by the Government, with about 11,500 pupils in attendance. The rapid increase of trade in late years has now placed the Straits Settlements in the first rank among our "Crown Colonies", apart from India.

The importance of our position on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal is heightened by our recent connection with the Native Malay States. To the north of Singapore, the State of *Johore*, with an area of 9000 square miles, a population of 300,000 in Malays and Chinese, and a fair trade of the usual kind in that region, passed, by a treaty made with the Sultan in 1885, under British control as to foreign policy. It was anarchy in the native states of the Malay peninsula, dangerous to British interests and detrimental to trade, which caused an interference leading, in and since 1874, to a settlement by which Residents, with a staff of British officials, advise the native rulers and have a share in the executive government. *Perak*, *Selangor*, and *Sungei Ujong* are in this sense, as "Protected States", under the control of the Governor of Singapore. *Negri Sembilan*, a confederacy of several petty states, is in the same position, and *Pahang*, the largest of all, on the eastern half of the lower Malay peninsula north of Johore, completes the list. The total area of these territories amounts to 35,000 square miles, with a population of over 400,000. A railway-system is begun for the development of their resources, which include tin, largely worked in Perak and Selangor, cinchona, pepper, gambier, coffee, rice, and tea. The progress already made in these States is another triumphant proof of the benefits of the British influence which has turned pirates and banditti into peaceful tillers and

traders; has enlisted Malay rulers in the cause of civilization; has abolished wars, made jungle-tracts into good roads, opened mines, created ports, rendered rivers navigable, cleared forests for the culture of paying produce, and thereby vastly increased the sum of human happiness, and opened a bright prospect in a region of long-standing misery and trouble. The present Sultan of Perak, part-ruler of a territory where, in 1875, the first British Resident, Mr. J. W. Birch, was murdered by the Malays, has been conspicuous for his justice, liberality, and diligence in affairs, by which he has won the love of subjects whom his predecessors pillaged and debased by their example of a wicked life. For the peace, order, and prosperity which are now enjoyed in that quarter of the world the natives and British and foreign traders are largely indebted to the policy initiated by Sir Andrew Clarke, Governor at Singapore in 1874, approved by the Earl of Carnarvon, Colonial Secretary at that time, and steadily and ably carried out by Sir William Jervois, Sir Frederick Weld, and Sir Cecil Smith, as Governors of the Straits Settlements, and by the zealous, energetic, and conscientious men who, under them, have been acting as our Residents in the Native States. It is in such work that Great Britain has won, and is winning, a renown of the noblest and most enduring kind, unsullied by any of the acts that sometimes deface extensions of political sway.

In the year 1841, HONG-KONG (properly *Hiang-Kiang*, "sweet waters", from the abundance of good springs) was a desolate island thinly peopled by fishermen. Occupied by British forces in the First Chinese or "Opium" War, the place was finally ceded to Great Britain, in August, 1842, by the Treaty of Nankin, and in April, 1843, a royal charter constituted the "Colony of Hong-Kong". In 1861 the territory, which includes several neighbouring islets, was completed in the cession of the little peninsula of Kowloon, on the opposite Chinese mainland, by the Treaty of Tien-tsin, closing the Third Chinese War. The island of Hong-Kong lies off the south-eastern coast of China, about 12 miles east of the entrance to the Canton River, and 90 miles south-east of that great southern capital of the Chinese Empire. The land consists of a rocky ridge extending east and west, with broken and abrupt peaks rising, in the one called "Victoria Peak", to nearly 1900 feet above sea-level. Eleven miles in length from east to

west, and from two to five in breadth, with a very broken outline on the south side, the island has an area of over 29 square miles, and is thus nearly half the size of Jersey. The strait on the north-east, the Lyeemoon Pass, is not half a mile across; to the north, at the centre of the island, the sea widens out to three miles as it runs up into Kowloon Bay; towards the north-west, narrowed again by the descent of the Kowloon peninsula, the passage is but a mile across, and then it opens out again towards the entrance of the Canton River. It is this formation of coast-line which makes, on the north-west, Hong-Kong Road, with Victoria Bay on its south side, one of the finest harbours to be found, landlocked against the winter north-east monsoon and the worst violence of the typhoons which now and again devastate the shipping of those Eastern waters; with holding anchorage and ample depth over ten square miles; with all requisites for commercial convenience and safety in a space fit to hold the navies of the world. To this noble haven Hong-Kong largely owes her grand position as a centre of Eastern trade and finance, and as a coaling and naval station of the highest rank. The grey and red granitic rocks of the island afford little scope for vegetation, but their stern aspect is relieved at various points by orchids and ferns of divers species; by the indigenous camellia, azalea, and hibiscus; by young trees of British planting on the western slopes; and by coast-patches of yams, sweet potatoes, and rice. The fruits include mangoes, oranges, and pears; the fauna comprise the ant-eater, some poisonous snakes, the land-tortoise, many game-birds in the marshes, termites ("white ants") and many other insects. The rainfall during the wet season, from May to October (the south-west monsoon), averages 100 inches; the temperature, ranging from 44° to 94°, has a mean annual height of 75°. The moist heat of the summer-months, as above, is very trying in the north, where most of the people reside, from the protected position which gives calmness to the sea in shutting off the cooling south-west wind. The winter months (of the north-east monsoon), from October to March, are very pleasant and healthful in their clear skies and invigorating breezes. Europeans suffer from dysentery, fever, and disorders of the liver; the Chinese from small-pox; and Asiatic cholera is not unknown.

The progress of the colony, in its earlier years, was very slow,

but the freedom of trade had its influence in due time, and the streams of Chinese emigration to California, after the discovery of gold in 1849, and to Australia, after 1851, passed through Hong-Kong, caused the fitting-out of ships and the sale of stores, and gave a decided impetus to the local trade. The population increased from 5000 in 1841 to 24,000 in 1848. In seven years more (1855), the people exceeded 72,000, and the growth of revenue by that time made the colony self-supporting, and enabled the British rulers to effect great improvements at the harbour in reclaiming land, building a massive sea-wall, and thus providing sites for an extension of trade-buildings. In 1854–56 troubles at Canton, ending in the destruction of foreign places of business ("factories"), drove much foreign trade from that port to Hong-Kong, and from that time the future of the colony was secure. She became the centre of postal, banking, and exchange dealings for Chinese trade with all quarters of the globe, and a further impulse came, after our latest Chinese war, in the opening of many fresh ports to European commerce. The opening of the Suez Canal (1869) was an epoch in the commercial history of Hong-Kong as well as of Bombay, and for many years a constant outflow and inflow of Chinese emigrants to, and labourers returning from, scenes of foreign industry, has added to the business of the thriving port. The population, in 1881, exceeded 160,000; in 1891, including the military and naval establishments, there were about 8500 whites, and 213,000 coloured people, nearly all Chinese. Apart from the garrison of nearly 3000 men, including many Indian troops, the Volunteer Artillery (100 effectives), and 750 police (of whom nearly half are Sikhs and Chinese), nearly half of the resident white population are Portuguese, one-third British, and the rest German, American, French, Spanish, Italian, and of a dozen other nations. In the world of Hong-Kong the Chinese now hold a very prominent place. Recently, out of the 20 chief mercantile firms, the largest tax-payers in the colony, 17, including the four largest, were Chinese. Only three were European, Messrs. Jardine, Matheson, & Co. coming about fifth on the list, and one of the two others being the great Anglo-Jewish house of the Sassoons. The shrewd money-making wearers of the pigtail have also an important position as bankers, stock-brokers, insurance agents, and owners of real property. The anchorage is protected by

powerful batteries, and, as the head-quarters of our China Squadron, and for mercantile purposes, the harbour possesses five docks and three slips furnished with all necessary equipment for overhauling and repairing men-of-war and merchant-vessels. As regards communications, telegraph-cables to Shanghai and Singapore, and the steamers of great Ocean-lines give access to all parts of the world.

It is in commerce, as already indicated, that Hong-Kong finds its one great source of business and wealth. It shares with Singapore the maritime and commercial command of the far East. Nothing hampers the enormous trade of a free port possessing every facility for quick despatch; of a vast shipping-centre that is at once a terminus and a point of junction for the vessels of great steam-navigation lines, a port of call for ships proceeding to countless places east and west, an entrepôt for the discharge and receipt of cargo, a spot for landing and taking up passengers, a great distributing emporium of traffic conducted by countless native junks and boats with the teeming mainland of China from Canton northwards to Swatow, Amoy, Foo-chow, and Shanghai. Outside of Great Britain, there is scarcely any part of the world where so many noble ocean-steamers can be seen as those which connect Hong-Kong with Europe, the Pacific coast of North America, India, Japan, and Australasian ports. The value of the annual trade cannot be precisely given, in the lack of official returns due to the absence of a custom-house. British imports from Hong-Kong recently reached a value of £836,000; our exports thither were worth about £1,800,000. Our imports chiefly consisted of tea, silk, and hemp, the Chinese trade in the two former articles being largely controlled by Hong-Kong firms; the exports were mainly cotton goods (over one million sterling), woollen (¼ million), and about £160,000 worth of copper, iron, and lead. These figures, however, give but a faint idea of the commerce of Hong-Kong, which is mainly carried on with India, China, and the Straits Settlements. In the year ending March 31st, 1891, the Indian imports reached nearly 2 million Rx. (tens of rupees); the exports from India to Hong-Kong in opium, cotton twist and yarn, and minor matters, amounted in value to about 9½ million Rx. The trade with China cannot be estimated, but it must be of very great value from the facts that in 1892 nearly 23,000 junks, of over 1,600,000 tons in all, entered the ports, and that the colony had then native vessels to the number of

52,000, with a total tonnage of 1,300,000. Recently the whole trade with the Straits Settlements reached a value of nearly 25 million dollars (each = 3*s*.). To sum up, the annual value of the whole imports and exports passing through Hong-Kong may be fairly put at 45 millions sterling, and the shipping "entered and cleared" amounts to nearly 15,000,000 tons, about 8 millions of which are British vessels.

The city of *Victoria*, the capital, containing with its suburbs above 200,000 people, is one of the finest cities of the East, extending for four miles along the base and partly up the slope of the hills facing the sea on the south side of the harbour. The place has stately and substantial buildings of granite and brick, and regular, neatly-kept streets shaded by well-grown banyan-trees. Omnibuses run from east to west, and a cable-tramway, opened in 1888, ascends the hill behind the town to the residences of the chief inhabitants. Nothing can be more picturesque than the aspect of the harbour to the traveller from the West as the steamer draws near and gives sight of many hundreds of junks lying in rows, some laden and preparing for the voyage as the crews propitiate the powers above in beating gongs, firing crackers, and burning coloured papers and scented sticks before the idol in the joss-house on deck; while others, moored along the sea-wall, are receiving or discharging cargo by the toil of lines of coolies, walking in pairs, with bamboo-slung packages on their shoulders. At a distance lie the mighty ocean-steamers, flying the flags of the greatest nations on earth, some surrounded by scores of flat-bottomed native boats, bringing or receiving goods. The man-of-war anchorage, in another quarter of the spacious roadstead, shows ships of several naval powers.

The administration of affairs, as usual in a Crown Colony, is placed in the hands of a Governor and an Executive Council, here composed of six chief officials. The Legislative Council, with the Governor as president, has six official and five non-official members, three nominated by the Crown (one of these being a Chinese gentleman), one by the Chamber of Commerce, and one by the Justices of the Peace. The courts of law are a supreme court, a police-magistrate's, and a marine magistrate's tribunal. The law is mainly the English Common Law, modified by colonial statutes and regulations. The revenue, now over 2 million dollars, is

mainly derived from municipal rates, opium and other licenses, land-rents, and stamps; the expenditure, largely devoted to the strong police-force and military charges, somewhat exceeded the public receipts, but the colony, with a debt of £200,000, incurred in 1887 for defensive works, and for water-works and other sanitation, is thoroughly solvent on a comparison of liabilities and assets. The Bishop of Victoria presides over the ecclesiastical affairs of the Anglican Church; a Vicar-Apostolic represents the Church of Rome. In educational affairs, we find 36 free Government schools, strictly secular, in six of which English is taught, and 76 grant-in-aid schools (64 free) of a denominational character, conducted by ten different Missionary Societies. Recently about 7200 children were on the rolls in the whole colony, besides nearly 2000 in 109 private schools, mostly Chinese, not aided or inspected by the department controlled by the Inspector of Schools. Three different dialects of Chinese, with English and Portuguese, are taught in the important and flourishing Victoria College, formerly styled the "Central School". This establishment was founded chiefly in order to furnish a sound middle-class European education to Chinese pupils, and the benefit is greatly valued by the Chinese community, who seek for their sons, in a knowledge of English and of Western ideas, an adaptation for employment in superior capacities connected with the European community. There are now about 1000 scholars on the college-roll, of whom eight-ninths are Chinese. The cost of the college is defrayed by a rate of only one half per cent on the house-rental of the colony. At the last distribution of prizes, by Sir William Robinson, K.C.M.G., Governor of Hong-Kong, it was stated that six out of eight candidates had passed the Oxford Local Examinations, and that the older Chinese boys are beginning, through the Governor's special interest and influence in the matter, to take the physical exercise in sports which their national prejudice has regarded as undignified. The younger Chinese lads are devoted to the games, sports, and drill of the college. There are scholarships, founded by the Government and by private beneficence, for the promotion of higher culture. The list of educational institutions is completed by mention of a Police-school, a reformatory, a Government Girls' School, a school for industrial education, and a medical college for Chinese students.

Our last flight in the East, before we start for Africa, conveys

us to the vast island of Borneo, third largest in the world, ranking next to Australia and Papua or New Guinea. No general description of that great territory can here be given, and it must suffice to state that little of its area (284,000 square miles, or nearly six Englands) is fully surveyed; that it is chiefly mountainous, with one peak in the north measured as 11,500 feet in height; that there are abundant rivers, most luxuriant tropical vegetation, with nearly every product of the Eastern Archipelago, and fauna which include the orang-outang amongst the monkeys, the tapir, wild swine, the small Malay bear, a small kind of tiger, wild oxen, deer, the rhinoceros in the north-west, the elephant in the north, with eagles, vultures, peacocks, flamingoes, pheasants, pigeons, parrots, and the kind of swallow that makes the Chinese dainty, edible birds'-nests. Crocodiles swarm in rivers, lakes, and lagoons; the coasts teem with fish, tortoises, oysters, pearl-mussels, and trepang. Countless gorgeous butterflies and moths flit about; minerals of many kinds, including diamonds, gold, coal, and platinum, are found. Most of the people are the aboriginal heathens called Dyaks, divided into many tribes, an intelligent, ingenious, hospitable, honest race, whose chief weapon, both for hunting and war, is the blowpipe expelling a small arrow pointed with sharp fish-teeth and poisoned with upas; shot with great accuracy, and fatal to man at forty yards, if the juice be fresh. As incorrigible pirates, the sea-board Dyaks long had great renown. The rest of the people, supposed to be two millions in all, are Mohammedans ("Malays") and the ubiquitous Chinese. The Dyaks are now mainly inland tillers of the soil, and gatherers of resin, gums, rattans (walking-sticks made from a kind of palm), gutta-percha, and wax. The Malays dwell on the coast and make a living as sailors and in trade, or, with little farms and gardens round their huts, combine cattle-rearing and fishing with the tillage of the soil. The Chinese pursue their way inland, engage in mining and trade, make their "pile", and return to lay their bones in their native land. There is no single native name for the whole great region of which the north-western part alone is properly called "Borneo" (Burnei or Brunei). By far the greatest part of the island—the west and south and east—is under the direct or indirect control of the Dutch, who there, as in so many other quarters of the East, succeeded the Portuguese as European occupants.

In dealing with British possessions, we come first to the island of Labuan, on the north-west coast, with an area of about 30 square miles, and an estimated population (1891) of 6000, mostly Malays, with some Chinese traders and 30 Europeans. The chief town, Victoria (1500 people), has an excellent harbour, from which exports of Borneo produce in sago, gutta-percha, india-rubber, camphor, rattans, tortoise-shell, beeswax, pearls, and edible birds'-nests have now a value of £55,000, being chiefly sent to Singapore. The imports, mainly of manufactured goods, were worth about £87,000. The island was ceded by the Sultan of Brunei in 1846 with a view, on his part, of being aided by the British in the suppression of Malay piracy. Our objects included the working of the excellent coal which exists in vast abundance, but the enterprise has not been hitherto very successful, though about 10,000 tons were raised and sold in 1890, and a new Company (the Central Borneo), having made a tramway from the coal-fields to the wharf at Victoria, seem likely to do well where others have failed. The territory of this little "Crown Colony" was placed recently under the management of the British North Borneo Company.

British North Borneo is the name of a territory in the extreme north of the island, having an area of about 31,000 square miles, with a capital town, Elopura or Sandakan, on the north-east coast, containing about 6000 people. The whole population may number 200,000, Mohammedans, Dyaks, and Chinese. This recent and rising British colony is interesting as being a revival, in Victorian days, of Elizabethan and Stuart methods of founding settlements beyond the seas. In 1881, a royal charter, with the full approval of both Houses of Parliament, conferred territorial rights in this region on a Company started by Sir Alfred Dent, with Sir Rutherford Alcock as the first chairman. The authorized capital was two millions sterling; the object of the association was to develop the great natural resources of Borneo in the most favourable part of the island, where there is an easy command of Chinese labour in any amount, and where little danger exists from typhoons, and from the earthquakes which sometimes devastate the Philippines and the Dutch possessions in Sumatra and Java. The climate is of an equable tropical character, with a range of temperature from 70° to 93°, and an annual rainfall of 120 inches, chiefly during the north-east monsoon,

from October till April. To the produce already indicated, we may add valuable timber, rice, pepper, and tobacco. Enterprise and energy are well enlisted in the service of an undertaking which promises great results in a not distant future. About one million acres have been already leased out for planting purposes. The value of the imports and exports, chiefly passing through Singapore, is now more than 3 million dollars. The country is a British "Protectorate" since 1888, the rule thereof being in the hands of a governor in Borneo and of the Court of Directors in London. The law administered (with a special court for Mohammedan suitors) is chiefly that of our Indian criminal and civil codes, modified by local ordinances. The revenue is derived from import-duties, royalties on exports, stamps, licenses on sale of spirits, opium and tobacco, and from the sale and rent of land. About 400 armed police are commanded by European officers. The course of post from London, by way of Singapore, does not exceed 30 days, and the state has joined the Postal Union.

The account of British dominion and influence in Asia closes with the Protectorates of Brunei and Sarawak, adjacent to North Borneo. *Brunei*, with an area of about 3000 square miles, on the mainland due south of Labuan, is the remnant of an olden powerful native state which once included much of Borneo. The products are the same as those which have been already given, and the trade is chiefly carried on with Singapore. In 1888, a treaty was concluded with the Sultan of this territory by which British protection is secured in consideration of our right to control the succession to the throne and foreign relations, and to appoint consular officials at discretion. At the same time, and on the same terms, a British Protectorate was constituted in Sarawak, a state the mention of which brings before us a notable historical personage, "Rajah Brooke". James Brooke, born at Benares in 1803, entered the East Indian army in 1819, was seriously wounded in the first Burmese War, came to England on long leave, and quitted the service in 1830. By nature an adventurous spirit of the type set forth in *Westward Ho!*, Brooke burned with a desire to carry British civilization into the Eastern Archipelago, paving the way thereto by extirpation of Malay piracy in those waters. In 1835 his father's death gave him possession of the needful pecuniary resources, and three years later his schooner-yacht

landed him on the north-west coast of Borneo. Help against rebels won from the Sultan of that part of the island the title of "Rajah and Governor of Sarawak", the duties of which post were assumed in 1841. The system of rule was reformed, free trade was established, and piracy was attacked with vigour and success. In 1848, on returning to England, and being welcomed at Windsor Castle, he became Sir James Brooke, K.C.B., and on our purchase of Labuan he was appointed Governor of the island, and British Commissioner and Consul-General for Borneo. The independence of Sarawak was in due course recognized by the British Government, and the country prospered in such wise that long before the Rajah's death, in Devonshire, in 1868, the chief town, *Kuching*, about 20 miles up the Sarawak river, had risen from a population of 1000 to 25,000, and the state was sending large exports to Singapore. Sir James was succeeded by his nephew, Sir Charles J. Brooke, G.C.M.G., who rules a territory exceeding 40,000 square miles, to the south-west of Brunei, with a population of 300,000. Coal is mined to the amount of 10,000 tons a-year on the coast near Labuan, and gold and antimony are obtained in paying quantities. The exports, of the usual kind from Borneo, here including coffee, timber, and tea, have an annual value of £300,000, with imports worth about ¼ million sterling. Kuching has good public buildings, an excellent museum of Borneo products, and Catholic and Protestant mission-schools. The Bishop of Singapore, Labuan, and Sarawak is the head of Anglican Church affairs. The many rivers afford internal communication by rowing and sailing-boats, and by steam-launches, and there are regular trading-vessels between ports on the coast and to Singapore.

AFRICA
EUROPE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
ASIA
PERSIA
TURKEY
TURKEY IN ASIA
ARABIA
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
ITALY
GREECE
Paris
Madrid
Lisbon
Corsica
Sardinia
Constantinople
Cyprus
Candia
Madeira
Canary Islands
RIO DE ORO
SAHARA OR GREAT DESERT
Tripoli
Barca
Libyan Desert
Tibesti
Timbuktu
Gulf of Aden
Gulf of Sidra
Persian Gulf
Socotra
Mecca
Omdurman
Khartoum
ABYSSINIA
BRIT. SOMALILAND
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
NORTHERN NIGERIA
Sokoto
Adamawa
FRENCH GUINEA
Sierra Leone
IVORY COAST
MILITARY TERRITORIES
UPPER UBANGI
CONGO STATE
FRENCH CONGO
GULF OF GUINEA
Equator
Bight of Biafra
Leopoldville
Brazzaville
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Zanzibar
Tabora
ANGOLA
Loanda
Benguela
Mossamedes
Mozambique
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
Nyassa
Matabele Land
Mashona Land
Comoro Is.
MADAGASCAR
Mauritius
Reunion
GERMAN Damara Land
S.W. AFRICA
Great Namaqua Land
Kalahari Desert
BECHUANA LAND
TRANSVAAL
Lorenzo Marques
CAPE COLONY
Cape Town
St. Helena
Ascension I.
Tropic of Capricorn
Tropic of Cancer
British Miles

CHAPTER XI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

CAPE COLONY AND DEPENDENCIES.

Appropriation of African territory by modern European States. Early history of CAPE COLONY—The native tribes—Hottentots—Bushmen or Bosjesmans—The great Bantu race—Kaffirs—Zulus—Bechuanas—Basutos—Restrictions on Trade by the Dutch Company—Growth of the vine—Life at Cape Town—The Colony becomes a British possession, is restored to the Dutch, and finally surrendered to Britain—Progress under British rule—Discontent of the Boers—Settlement formed at Algoa Bay—Fighting with the Kaffirs—Slavery abolished—Kaffir war of 1835—Deliverance of the Fingoes—Educational advance in the Colony—Another Kaffir war—Representative government for the Colony—A third Kaffir war—Governorship of Sir George Grey—The Amaxosa delusion—Visit of Prince Alfred—Munificent gift by Sir George Grey—Discovery of Diamonds in Griqualand—Outbreak of the Zulus under Cetewayo—Contest with the Boers of the Transvaal—Recent progress of the Colony—Population and Geographical details of the territory—Climate—Vegetable and animal productions—Mineral wealth—Industries—Internal communication—Commerce—Executive—Revenue and expenditure—Religious statistics—Libraries, newspapers, and education—Means of defence—Chief towns. Other territories under British rule—Basutoland—Bechuanaland—Zambesia and Nyassaland—The South African Company—Lobengula and the Matabele—British East Africa or Ibea.

In the introductory chapter of this work, we have seen in how startling and sudden a manner the southernmost region of the great African continent was forced on the attention of the world by the war of which a detailed description is given in some coming chapters of this portion of our record. The very last year of the nineteenth century found the interest of the civilized world divided between events in the part of Africa most remote from Europe, and tragical occurrences in Eastern Asia, in a great semi-civilized populous region still more distant from the capitals of the western Powers from which, apart from the United States, most of the world is ruled. The very shape of the bulky continent, the most uniform, heavy, and monotonous of all in its general outlines (if we regard Australia as merely a huge island), with its seventy-two degrees of latitude disposed almost equally on both sides of the equator, was a main reason why the vast barbaric region, apart from her coast-territories, ranked until very recent days as the "great unknown" of geographers and statesmen. Her distant past is one that recalls the names of Egypt, Phoenicia, Carthage, Ophir, Herodotus, Hecataeus, the Greek colony of Cyrene, Alexander, the Ptolemies, Julius

Caesar, Cato of Utica, Antony, and Cleopatra. The earlier centuries of the Christian era bring before us, on the northern fringe, invading Vandals of Teutonic race; conquering Arabs, carrying Islâm along the northern and north-eastern coasts, and introducing some degree of political organization, commercial activity, and civilization, along with the institution of slavery. The dawn of modern history shows us Portugal in her day of exploring and commercial fame; followed by the advent, on the west coast, of English, French, Dutch, and Spanish traders; by the beginning of negro-slavery beyond the Atlantic; and by the foundation of Cape Colony. In the latter half of the eighteenth century, travellers began to raise the veil from the dark interior, but only a century ago precise European knowledge was still confined to a narrow border of the coast. The nineteenth century, especially during the latter half of the period, brought the nearly complete knowledge, as regards main geographical facts, which has been referred to in previous pages of this work. Such has been the past of the once "dark continent" that is the diplomatic battle-ground of the present, and the political, colonial, and commercial problem of the future. "The awakening of Africa to a new life is one of the most notable events of our times", says Mr. Arthur Silva White, F.R.S.E., Secretary to the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, in the Preface to his work, *The Development of Africa*, which we recommend to all readers who require general information concerning the continent, as regards its geography, climate, populations, religions, slave-traffic, exploration, resources, and political partition. After centuries of neglect, the great region has become the arena of European rivalries which have introduced new political terms in "sphere of influence" and "Hinterland". The former "is applied to certain regions set apart for the exclusive political action of the European power to whom they have been awarded, or to whom they have been recognized as belonging by incontestable right". "Hinterland", cynically defined to mean "as much as one can get", really "applies to the interior parts of the African continent which, geographically or politically, may be justly regarded as the extension or field of expansion of territorial possessions on the coast". *The Partition of Africa*, by Mr. J. Scott Keltie, Assistant Secretary to the Royal Geographical Society, and Editor of a work that needs no praise, *The Statesman's Year-Book*, is another book

containing an excellent account of the territorial history of Africa, including a full description of the "national scramble" in the twelve years ending with 1894, and a forecast on the economic value of the "one barbarous continent now parcelled out among the most civilized Powers of Europe". It will clear the ground if we here briefly indicate the results of the "scramble". Assuming Africa to contain about 11½ millions of square miles, we assign about 1¾ millions to Morocco, Bornu, Wadai, Bagirmi, Abyssinia and dependencies, and yet unappropriated regions of the north-central and central territory. Turkey, in Tripoli, Egypt, and Sudan, accounts for 1,250,000 square miles. The two Boer republics (Transvaal and Orange Free State) in the south-east, and Liberia, the negro-state, contained, at the above date, 200,000. Seven European nations—Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Germany, France, and Great Britain—have made away with all the rest, in regions actually occupied and directly ruled, or, to a far larger extent, in vast areas claimed, and accorded by diplomatic agreement, as "spheres of influence" within which no other Power is to intermeddle. Belgian Africa, the Congo State, has an area of over 850,000 square miles. Italy, in the north-east (Abyssinia, Somaliland, Galla), professes to hold 190,000. Spain (western Sahara, Canaries, &c.), has over 200,000 square miles. Portugal (Angola, on the west coast, Mozambique, on the east, and islands on the west) is mistress of about 800,000. Germany (Cameroons, on the west coast, and in the south-west, and on east coast) takes above 800,000. France (Tunis, Algeria, Sahara, Gold and Benin Coasts, Sudan, and Guinea, French Congo, Madagascar, and small portions) takes 3 millions of square miles as her share. Finally, Great Britain, with 556,000 square miles in the west (Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, Lagos and Yoruba, Niger Territories, and Oil Rivers); 1,200,000 in the south, south-centre, and south-east (British South and Central Africa); and 750,000 square miles in British East Africa, possesses or "protects" about 2,506,000 square miles, and so accounts for the remainder of the whole enormous mass of territory whose people still await the extinction of slavery and of paganism, and the spread of Christian civilization. It is with our dominions in South Africa that we have now to deal.

The earliest history of the territory called Cape Colony includes the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486, by Bartolomeo

Diaz, and the landing of Vasco da Gama, in November, 1487, at St. Helena Bay (120 miles north of the Cape), which he quitted within a few days after a skirmish with natives whom he describes as small in stature, clothed in the skins of animals, and armed with weapons formed of wood hardened in fire and pointed with horn. Thenceforward, different harbours on the south African coast were frequently visited by Portuguese fleets bound to or from the East. In 1503, Antonio de Saldanha, on his way to India, anchored in Table Bay, and ascended the flat-topped mountain to which he gave its name. Seven years later, Francisco d'Almeida, first Governor and Viceroy of the Portuguese possessions in India, landed in Table Bay on his return to Europe, and was killed, with many of his men, in a conflict with the natives. In 1522, the Bay was entered by the *Vittoria*, the first ship that ever sailed round the world, commanded by Sebastian del Cano, whose vessel alone returned to Europe after completing the voyage begun by a squadron of five under Magellan (Magalhaens). The first account of the Cape written in English by an actual observer was that of Thomas Stevens, a priest in the service of Portugal, wrecked near Table Bay, in 1579, on his way to Goa. In the following year, on June 18th, Francis Drake, returning home on the first British circumnavigation of the world, sighted the headland, which he describes as "a most stately thing, and the fairest cape we saw in the whole circumference of the earth". In 1591, the first expedition that left England for the East Indies sailed from Plymouth in three ships under the command of Admiral George Raymond, and put into Table Bay at the end of July. Only one of these first English vessels that ever reached the South African coast arrived at her final destination. The *Merchant Royal*, in August, was sent back as too short-handed for a continuance of her voyage. The *Penelope*, with Raymond on board, foundered at sea on September 12th, four days after leaving Table Bay. The *Edward Bonaventure*, commanded by Captain James Lancaster, made her way to India. This notable navigator and merchant-prince afterwards became one of the twenty-four first directors of the East India Company, and "General" of the first fleet sent out, with John Davis as chief pilot, in the spring of 1601, and it is he whose name, as that of a great supporter of Arctic voyages, was given by Baffin, in 1616, to Lancaster Sound, the strait leading westwards from the north of Baffin

Bay. It is interesting to note the use made of the "call at the Cape", at this early period, by navigators whose cry was "Eastward Ho!" It was the dreadful disease called "scurvy" which, in 1591, crippled the *Merchant Royal.* The stay of some weeks at Table Bay restored the men of the other crews in supplying them with abundance of fresh food through the shooting of sea-birds and the gathering of mussels and other shell-fish along the rocky beach. About forty head of cattle and as many sheep were obtained from the natives at the price of two knives for an ox and one knife for a sheep, and Lancaster succeeded in his shot at a large antelope. Again, in 1601, Lancaster, reaching Table Bay on September 9th, procured life-saving vegetables and fresh meat for his scurvy-stricken crews. Forty-two oxen and a thousand sheep were obtained from the natives in exchange for pieces of iron hoop, and the sick were nearly all restored to health and strength during a residence of seven weeks ashore. The Dutch fleets to and from the East Indies found like advantage in the harbours of South Africa, and early in the seventeenth century Table Bay became a regular resort, a "halfway-house" of refreshment and rest, for the ships of the English and Dutch East India Companies. In 1620, two English commanders of merchant-fleets bound for Asia, Andrew Shillinge and Humphrey Fitzherbert, found themselves together in Table Bay, and, struck by the value of the place for voyagers to and from India, they hoisted the British flag and claimed the sovereignty for James the First, but their act had no sanction either from the Government or from the East India directors, and no possession followed on their patriotic impulse.

The enterprising Dutchmen of the middle of the seventeenth century, when their naval and maritime power and renown were at least on a par with those of Great Britain, were to be the first European holders of territory at the Cape of Good Hope. The enterprise had its origin in a shipwreck. In 1648 the *Haarlem*, on her return from the Indies, became a wreck in Table Bay. The crew and passengers got safe to shore, and remained for five months before they were rescued by a homeward-bound fleet. Two of their number, Janssen and Proot, addressed the directors of the Netherlands East India Company in a memorial which set forth, firstly, the danger to richly-laden Dutch ships from hostile vessels which might, in Table Bay, lie in wait for the homeward-bound;

secondly, the fruitfulness of the soil, the facilities for obtaining cattle, the salubrity and geniality of the climate, and the good behaviour of the natives under just and kindly treatment from Europeans. The Company thereupon resolved to establish a fort, with a settlement for the growth of fruit and vegetables in quantity sufficient for the wants of the garrison and for the supply of Dutch vessels. It was also hoped that a lucrative trade in cattle might be carried on with the natives, and that the undertaking might be made self-supporting. There was, at this time, no intention of founding a colony in the usual sense. In April, 1652, a body of 116 persons, all being servants of the Netherlands East India Company, or female relatives of the same by blood or by marriage, reached Table Bay under Jan Van Riebeek, formerly a surgeon in the Company's service, as Governor. The men were about one hundred in number, and, after some suffering during the first rainy season, before due shelter had been provided, the new-comers began to flourish by trade and toil. A reinforcement of fifty workmen arrived from Holland, and the work of building and planting was pursued. English and Dutch ships alike, in time of peace between the nations, were supplied with fresh meat, vegetables, and fruit; a hospital for sick soldiers and sailors landed from out-going or home-coming ships was erected; and in a few years' time the garden-plants and fruit-trees of Europe, with young oaks and firs, sent growing in boxes; vines from France and the Rhine Provinces; pigs, horses, sheep of superior breed, dogs and rabbits, were becoming acclimatized in what had now become a genuine settlement of the colonial class.

In 1657, ground was allotted to the first "free burghers", or regular European colonists, in South Africa. These men were discharged soldiers and sailors of the Company's service, who were to have full possession of as much land as they could, in the space of three years, bring under tillage, with payment of a moderate land-tax after that time. This first attempt at colonization had little success, as the new settlers were people of a low class and character, the refuse of various European nations, originally kidnapped into the Company's service. In 1658, slavery was introduced by the arrival of about 300 persons, partly young boys and girls of Angola taken in a Portuguese slave-ship captured by the Dutch, and partly negroes brought from the Guinea coast by one

of the Company's own "slavers". It was not long before the natives, resenting the signs of permanent occupation which they beheld, and the seizure of their pasturage, began to steal the cattle of the Dutch farmers, and petty warfare began which firearms usually decided in favour of the Europeans. In 1662, Van Riebeek was succeeded as Governor by Wagenaar, under whom peace with the natives was maintained, and some young women were sent out from the Orphan Asylum at Amsterdam as wives for the farmers. In 1672, the colony consisted of 64 "burghers", with wives, children, and Dutch men-servants to the number of about 160, and of nearly 400 civil servants and soldiers of the Company. In the same year, a purchase of land was made from native chiefs, consisting of territory northwards to Saldanha Bay. The payment was made in tobacco, brandy, beads, and bread, to the actual value of £2, 16*s.*, as reported to the Company's Directors, though the sellers were informed, and believed, that the goods were worth 4000 reals, or £800. The natives, it must be stated, have never admitted the right of their chiefs to alienate the land which is held for the common good of all, and this typical transaction shows that the Dutch claim to territory in South Africa rested merely on rights acquired by fraud or by forcible occupation. Trouble from the aborigines soon arose through the incursions made, and through the vast numbers of wild deer of various kinds slaughtered by burghers who preferred hunting to tillage, and warfare was carried on in which both parties aimed chiefly at the capture of sheep and horned cattle.

At this point of our narrative we may briefly notice the native peoples with whom the Dutch settlers and their successors have been brought into contact in southern and south-central Africa. The *Hottentots*, a name given by either the early Portuguese or Dutch navigators, were supposed aboriginal occupants of the south-western extremity of the great continent. They never shrank from union with Europeans, and in course of time a large breed of half-castes has sprung up. The modern Hottentots of Cape Colony, having long since lost the language, customs, and dress of their forefathers, and adopted European habits, bear little resemblance, save in person, to those who were found by the early Dutch settlers. Slight in build, and of the ordinary stature; yellowish-brown in complexion; with projecting cheek-bones, narrow and pointed chin,

thick lips, flat nose, wide nostrils, woolly hair, and scanty beard, they added to the charm of their faces the marvellous sounds that issued from their mouths in a language that resembled, to European ears, a continued clattering of the teeth, and consisted of a series of clicks, a sort of link between articulate and inarticulate speech, made by striking the tongue in various ways against the teeth or the roof of the mouth. A slight variation in the click gave a diverse meaning to the sounds. They were a simple set of fairly flourishing people, divided into tribes each with its own chief, and living in a patriarchal fashion as tenders of herds and occasional hunters, dwelling in movable huts of wood or tents made of wicker-work and rush-mats. Their leisure hours were given to feasting with marvellous gluttony and lack of cleanliness as to the food devoured; to dancing, singing, and smoking. They have been credited with signs of some mental power in the composition of sacred and secular songs, with reed-music regularly taught to the young, and in the possession of a rich and intricate mythology, and of abundant fables, legends, proverbs, and riddles. Their religion was confined to the use of professional sorcerers in averting by prayers and charms the influence of an evil spirit. The Namas, or people of Namaqualand, have retained most of the original Hottentot type, as a nomadic people preserving many ancient practices and customs. The Griqua half-breeds are the most Europeanized, now numbering, with perhaps 20,000 surviving Hottentots, about 100,000 persons, semi-civilized in habits, customs, and dress.

The *Bushmen* (*Bosjesmans*), lower in the scale of humanity than the Hottentots whom they hated, were and are a nomadic people of the Kalahari Desert. A thin wiry dwarfish race, only 4½ feet in average height, red-hued in skin, and an ugly caricature of Hottentots in all but their own bright eyes, they till no soil; have no cattle, sheep, or goats; are ruled by no chieftain, make no dwellings, but live in caves or in holes dug in the ground, feeding on the flesh of wild animals hunted or domestic animals stolen, and on roots and berries, wild plants and grubs, locusts and reptiles of various kinds. Their speech is a worse kind of clicking and gurgling than the Hottentot talk. Passionate, cruel, intensely fond of a free and wandering life, the Bushmen, ranking among the most degraded of mankind, would never submit to any control from or amalgamation with Europeans, and are now far on the way to extinction. South-

central and east-central Africa are chiefly peopled by various tribes of the great *Bantu* race, which may be compared, as regards extent and complexity of language, to the Aryan peoples of Asia and Europe. They include the various families of Kaffirs (Kaffres, or Caffres, from the Arabic *Kafir*, unbeliever)—Pondos, Fingos, Zulus, Swazi, and others in the south-east—and, extending northwards almost to the Somali and Swahili country of the east coast, the Bantus comprise also the Bechuanas, Basutos, Matabele, and many other nations of the south-central territories. The *Kaffirs* in no wise employ the name given to them by Europeans, but have a separate title for each tribe, ruled by a chief with authority checked by a body of councillors. Varying in colour from light brown to sepia-black, the Kaffirs are fine, tall, erect, muscular, well-formed men, with a skull of European shape, but displaying the negro type in a broad nose, thick lips, and woolly hair. With stock-breeding and hunting as the chief occupations of the men, they live chiefly on game and milk, and on maize and millet raised by the women. The kraals or villages consist of beehive-shaped huts formed of strong wicker-work frames thatched with reeds and grass, the largest dwellings being about 25 feet in diameter, and from 7 to 8 feet high in the centre. The religion of the people lies in little more than ceremonies and sacrifices used to appease malignant spirits, and in a belief in witchcraft that supports a class of "witch-doctors" for the detection of persons in alliance with the powers of evil, and for the causing of rain in time of drought. Before the days of trade with Europeans, the people had some skill in working copper and iron, and in pottery and wood-work. Ever brave in battle, the Kaffir warriors bore a shield of ox-hide on a wooden frame, five feet in length, and used in offence heavy-headed clubs and assegais, or slender spears of hard wood tipped with grooved heads of hammered iron. These weapons were hurled with great force and accuracy, and, as we learned to our cost, in conflict with the Zulus, who carried a somewhat heavier weapon, might be used with effect at close quarters against inferior numbers of men armed with breech-loading rifles. In modern days, the *Zulus* became, in physical, intellectual, and moral character, the highest development of the Kaffir tribes or clans, with a democratic polity in which elected chiefs held power during pleasure, and laws expressed the people's will. The *Bechuanas*, best known to us

through the labours and writings of the illustrious missionaries and travellers Moffat and Livingstone, were divided into several tribes, and were, during the nineteenth century, found more advanced in civilization than other nations of South Africa, ready to embrace Christianity, and ruled under a system of free "local government". Living chiefly by cattle-rearing and husbandry, they work with some skill in iron, copper, ivory, and skins. The *Basutos*, closely akin to the Bechuanas, are superior to most of the Kaffirs in intelligence and industry, but rank below them in bodily development and warlike energy. They are among the most civilized of the South African peoples.

Under the rule of Simon van der Stel, "Commander" of the Cape colony from 1679 to 1699, a new start was made in tillage by the establishment of eight families in the beautiful valley, with a good stream of water and fine trees, called from him Stellenbosch, about 30 miles east of Cape Town. Abundant harvests of wheat were raised, supplying the soldiers and "burghers" at the Cape with bread in place of the usual biscuits and rice. This success was followed, in 1685, by the emigration from Holland of about fifty heads of families, mostly small farmers, with a few mechanics, accompanied by wives and children, and of about the same number of young women. The new immigrants were steady, industrious, and religious people, who would have proved to be a valuable addition to the colony but for the institution of slavery, which soon corrupted their habits of steady personal application to work. In the time of Van der Stel, much exploration of the country to the north and east was made, and the natives far beyond the settlement had become subject to the Dutch authorities. The progress of the colony was much retarded by the tyrannical rule of the Company, requiring cultivators to deal only with the Government, both for the purchase of necessaries and for the sale of their produce at a price fixed by the officials. This restriction of private trade made it difficult to grow rich, and sorely discouraged the immigration of men of capital and enterprise. In 1688, after Louis the Fourteenth's revocation of the Edict of Nantes, a valuable accession of ability and character was made in the arrival of about 300 Huguenot refugees from France, men, women, and children, sent out from Holland on the footing of the other colonists, by which, having no freedom of trade and no voice in the government, they were in

reality unpaid servants of the Netherlands East India Company. In spite of this, the skill, industry, and frugality of the new-comers, some of whom were people of high rank, others manufacturers, and others vine-tillers, wine-makers, and distillers, soon placed beyond the reach of want those who had landed in a penniless condition. A great impulse was given to the cultivation of the vine and the manufacture of wine. The use of the Dutch language was imposed on the French immigrants both for religious services and in all public affairs, and the French tongue was lost in the third generation, but the Dutch idiom was much modified through the influence of the new population. A very large number of the South African Dutch, or "Africanders", of the present day are descended from these Huguenot colonists, alliance with whom was sought or gladly accepted by the better class of the whites. In 1690, Van der Stel was promoted to the rank of "Governor" for his exertions in behalf of the colony. It was he who planted the famous vineyard of Constantia, called by his wife's name, a few miles from Cape Town, which has given its appellation to the district on the eastern and north-eastern slopes of Table Mountain range, and to the well-known red and white sweet wines of fine aroma that are still among the best of the Cape vintage-produce. In 1691, the colonists numbered over one thousand, possessed of about 300 horses, 4000 cattle, 50,000 sheep, and half a million of vines, and harvesting good crops of barley, wheat, and rye. The government of Adrian van der Stel, son of Simon, lasted from 1699 to 1706, and was marked by tyrannical conduct ending in his recall. He had, however, done some good service in setting the example of constructing reservoirs for irrigating land in times of drought. The policy of the Government, compelling farmers to sell their corn and wine at the Company's stores in Cape Town for about one-third of the rates that could be obtained from ship-captains, caused an expansion of territorial bounds in driving colonists forth from tillage-farms to great tracts of grazing-land leased out to them at a trifling rent. There were also adventurous Europeans who took to hunting the abundant game as one means of living, and, with a few cattle at pasture, ever moved forward, driving the Hottentots before them.

We have some interesting accounts of life at Cape Town about this time, which contain instructive matter concerning the Dutch method of colonial rule. In April, 1691, the English ship *Defence*,

from the Indies, called at the Cape, with nearly all the crew sick of the usual mariner's scourge. Among those whom scurvy had spared was the famous navigator William Dampier, already seen by us in the earlier days of Australian history. We find from his description that the restrictions on trade produced illicit dealing, and that the colonists were prohibited from catching, for sale on their own account, any of the abundant and excellent fish in the waters of Table Bay. A modern historian of South Africa, Mr. Theal, traces to this the fact that the Dutch, who were among the most hardy and successful fishermen in Europe, have never in South Africa resorted to this means of livelihood. We learn that most families had a few Hottentots in their employ, doing light work in return for food, lounging about dressed in sheep-skins, and making a great noise on moonlight nights in singing and dancing. From other contemporary sources we hear of the harsh treatment of slaves; of the great use made of the hospital by the sick crews of the ships that were constantly calling at the Cape; of the "nearly two hundred houses" of the town, in wide streets laid out at right angles to each other, many of the dwellings having large courtyards and fine gardens; of the abundance of wild animals in the neighbourhood, with hyænas performing the work of scavengers in the streets by night. In 1713, one-fourth of the Europeans in Table Valley died of small-pox brought by patients returning from India. The disease spread to the out-settlers, and whole kraals of natives, living in filth, and overcome by despair on seizure, were destroyed. Two years later, the first colonial "commando", composed of thirty mounted burghers, took the field in pursuit of Bushmen who had driven off 700 sheep belonging to a farmer. This was the beginning of a warfare with the natives—Bushmen, Hottentots, and Kaffirs,—which continued, at intervals, through the whole of the Dutch, and for many years of British rule. In 1722, the dangers of the sea in Table Bay, then unprotected by any artificial aids, were terribly shown in a storm which wrecked ten anchored ships, with the loss of 660 lives and of property worth ¼ million sterling. A government which took no pains to provide roads or bridges could not be expected to attempt a breakwater, but after a like disaster in 1737, the Company's ships were ordered to resort to Simon's Bay, to the south of the Cape peninsula, during the winter months, as complete shelter under the land was there found from

the north-west gales which then occur. From that time, the roadstead became an important naval station, situated on the west side of False Bay, and being an inlet of the land as it runs south-east to end in the actual Cape of Good Hope, about 30 miles to the south of Cape Town.

We now, as we approach the middle of the eighteenth century, find the Dutch farmers taking up vast tracts of land in the interior, and laying them out in cattle-runs of 5000 acres and upwards. In 1755, another visitation of small-pox slew nearly 1000 Europeans and a larger number of natives in Table Valley. At this time, Governor Tulbagh (1751–1771) was in power, and proved himself to be one of the best Dutch rulers of the colony. In spite of his strict sumptuary laws, rigid etiquette, and severe military discipline, he was very popular. He had risen by courage and ability from the position of a private soldier in the Company's service, and his honesty, good sense, and keenness in affairs enabled him to meet all the expenses of government without laying any new tax upon the burghers. The trade which he drove in supplies, at good prices, with British and French ships, as well as Dutch, which were by him encouraged to call at the Cape, enabled him to pay remunerative rates to the growers, and yet to leave a good margin for his employers, the Company. This period of prosperity was long afterwards spoken of as "the good old times of Father Tulbagh". Wine sent to Europe, and wheat to Batavia, were the principal exports, with some skins and ostrich-feathers, and a little ivory obtained from the adventurous hunters who had begun to turn to profit the elephants which at that time swarmed in the land. The natives caused but little trouble under Tulbagh's administration, the Hottentots within the European settlement being usually governed by chiefs of his appointment, and the courts of law being open to all natives, with a certainty of redress for oppression or ill-treatment at the hands of colonists. On the northern border there were "commandos" sent out which inflicted severe punishment on large parties of Bushmen who stole cattle. In December, 1764, Lord Clive, on his way to India, was received with distinguished honour by the Governor, who placed Government House at his disposal and furnished him with a military guard.

With the death of Tulbagh in 1771, the best days of Dutch supremacy at the Cape had an end. Among the evils of their

latest period of rule was the cruel treatment of slaves, whom their masters kept in ignorance of the Christian faith, because the Dutch law forbade any baptized person to remain in bondage. On the frontier, Bushmen and Hottentots were hunted down for compulsory service as herdsmen and domestics, the adults in the kraals being killed, and the helpless children carried off for training in servitude. The extirpation of adult heathens was supposed to be a pious work. The natives retorted by incessant robberies of cattle, and many farmers died from the Bushmen's poisoned arrows. Tulbagh's successor, Van Plettenberg, was complained of as an arbitrary ruler, and his subordinate officials were denounced as oppressive and corrupt. Prosperity and liberty were alike wanting to the colonists at and near Cape Town, and the burghers, learning the independence achieved by the American colonists of Great Britain, aspired to personal and commercial freedom. Their petitions to the Government in Holland failed, and the outbreak of war, in 1780, between that country and Great Britain, foreshadowed the opening, at no distant date, of a new era in South Africa. The colony, at this time, had a militia of 3000 men, but they were dispersed over an area of about 100,000 square miles, and were partly engaged in border-warfare with Bushmen and Kaffirs. In June, 1781, De Suffren, the great French naval commander, having outsailed the British fleet under Commodore Johnstone, saved the colony by landing two regiments. In the following year, the Cape garrison was reinforced by the arrival of the Luxemburg Regiment, raised in France to serve the Dutch East India Company. After the peace of 1783, the Company still refused to make any real change in the method of government at the Cape, and turned their attention to measures of defence against foreign foes. An officer of engineers, Cornelis Van de Graaff, was Governor from 1785 to 1791, and in 1788 the garrison at the Cape consisted of 3000 regular troops, including 400 engineers and artillerymen who greatly strengthened the fortifications of Cape Town.

In 1795, when the Netherlands had been conquered by France, and the garrison of Cape Town had been much weakened by the despatch of troops to Java, a British expedition, under Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, arrived at Simon's Bay. Simon's Town was occupied, and the coming, in September, of three British regiments and a strong force of artillerymen and engineers, made

resistance impossible for the Dutch Commissioner, Sluysken, then in charge. A capitulation placed Great Britain in possession of the colony, on condition of the Dutch settlers retaining their existing rights and being subject to no new imposts. In the following year, a Dutch squadron of nine vessels, with 2000 troops on board, was captured by Elphinstone in Saldanha Bay, and the soldiers, who were Germans, enlisted for service in our East Indian possessions. The purpose of our conquest was revealed in 1797 when Lord Macartney, appointed Governor of the Cape, announced that it would be held by Great Britain as commanding the ocean-route to India. The declaration is itself the most severe condemnation of the almost inconceivable folly of British rulers who, in 1802, under the Treaty of Amiens, restored Cape Colony to Dutch possession. We find that in 1805 a census showed that the colonists of European descent, exclusive of Dutch troops, numbered nearly 26,000; that there were also nearly 30,000 slaves, and about 20,000 Hottentots, Bushmen, and half-breeds, as servants bound by agreements for various terms. The population of Cape Town, in these latest days of Dutch rule, consisted of 6273 Europeans and nearly 10,000 slaves. We may note here that, under the control of the Netherlands, the colony had never been open to free immigrants; that little had been done to develop the great resources of the territory; that internal improvement of the colony for its own sake had been utterly neglected; that in 1795, at the close of the Company's period of rule, there were neither roads nor bridges worthy of the name; that Table Bay and Simon's Bay were alone open to commerce, and that in those ports nothing but a wooden jetty had been erected to facilitate trade. The people were oppressed; the expenditure exceeded the revenue; the civil service was corrupt; the laws were complicated, and, in many cases, impolitic and unjust; the legislative, administrative, and judicial powers were combined in one body; personal freedom did not exist for those who lived within reach of a Government that, at any moment, might seize and exile any person without trial, and impress for service, without remuneration, the slaves, horses, oxen, waggons, and harness of any settler. The Christianity professed by the Dutch rulers had converted only a handful of Hottentots and slaves. Industry was discouraged, education neglected, slavery maintained and increased not only by importation, but by the retention in

bondage of those whom Dutch law declared to be free. The rule of the Company had been, in fact, a curse instead of a blessing to the country, and it was British conquest that alone prevented the coming of anarchy as the result of insurrection amongst colonists who were wholly unfit for self-government and only understood freedom as the right of every white man to do as he pleased, and to treat the natives according to his own will. The rule of the Company must in any case have ceased through the bankruptcy caused by the extinction of its trade in the action of British cruisers, and South Africa was saved from ruin, in the very crisis of her affairs, by the strong grasp of British intervention and control.

Already, during the brief British occupation from 1795 to 1802, the people had experienced a favourable change in the methods of rule. The torture of suspected criminals came to an end, and the racks, wheels, and other instruments of cruelty exposed to view at Cape Town were promptly destroyed. The finances were brought into a state of equilibrium; taxation was lightened; trade with Europe was thrown open to all; the natives were assured of protection from wrong, to the great disgust of the Dutch frontier-farmers. In 1800, the London Missionary Society began the civilizing work in which the labours of a noble band of men were to show them forth at once as apostles of religion, pioneers of trade, scientific explorers, and champions of freedom for native races. Within the colony, and beyond the frontiers, mission-stations arose, and little companies of Hottentots and Griquas became converts to the faith. The better class of citizens, viewing the increase of freedom and prosperity that had come with a change from Dutch to British rule, greatly deplored the retrocession made by the Treaty of Amiens, but they had not long to wait for another and final occupation. In 1801 the colony had an area of about 120,000 square miles, bounded on the east by the Great Fish River, on the north by a curved line extending from near Colesberg, just south of Orange River, to the mouth of Buffels River in Little Namaqualand, and it was divided into four districts—the Cape, Stellenbosch with Drakenstein, Swellendam, and Graaff Reinet. The two former produced large supplies of fruit, grain, vegetables, and wine; the two latter were mostly in the hands of graziers. The colony had not a single book-shop, nor was there any newspaper

until 1800, when two merchants at Cape Town, Messrs. Walker and Robertson, published the first number of the *Capetown Gazette and African Advertiser.* The first book printed in South Africa, a spelling-book for use in mission-schools, came out in 1800, under the auspices of Dr. Vanderkemp, one of the first two missionaries sent out by the London Society.

It was towards the end of 1805 that a powerful fleet under Sir Home Popham, with an army of between 5000 and 6000 men under Sir David Baird, went forth, in the days of Trafalgar and Austerlitz, for the seizure of Cape Colony. On January 4th, 1806, the fleet came to anchor off Cape Town, between Robben Island and the coast. The troops, including the 71st, 72nd, and 93rd Regiments, forming the Highland Brigade, were landed, and the march on Cape Town began. The Governor, General Janssens, with an army of about 5000 men, composed of a few regulars, mounted burghers, and a battalion of French seamen and marines, with 23 guns, met his foe at the summit of the Blaauwberg. His men were not fitted to cope with veteran troops, and, after some severe firing and a brave resistance on the part of the Dutch, a bayonet-charge of the Highlanders, forming the British left wing, put the enemy to flight with a total loss of 700 men in killed and wounded, more than three times that of the victors. Resistance to so powerful an armament was impossible at Cape Town, and on January 10th, 1806, the place was surrendered with the honours of war. Eight days later, the brave Janssens, abandoned by most of his men, also submitted on honourable terms, and the Dutch troops were all conveyed to Holland at our charge. Thus did Cape Colony pass into British possession. On the downfall of Napoleon in 1814, a convention was made between Great Britain and the Netherlands, restoring to Holland all her possessions captured during the war, except those in South America and South Africa. With all the generosity of those who deal with other people's money, the British ministers added to the crushing expenditure of the great war by paying to the Dutch Government six millions sterling for our retention of what was fair prize of war. It was also conceded that Dutch vessels on their way to the East should be allowed to obtain supplies and repairs on the same conditions as British ships, and that the colonists should be allowed to trade with Holland. Our possession of Cape Colony was finally

ratified, in 1815, by the Congress of Vienna, after its acquirement had cost in all the sum of 16 millions sterling.

Under the government of the Earl of Caledon, from 1807 to 1811, the slave-trade, as distinguished from slave-holding, was abolished, and some excellent reforms included the establishment of annual circuits of judges in the inland-districts and of postal communication throughout the country, with regulations that secured better treatment for the Hottentot subjects of the British crown. Under the next Governor, Sir John Cradock, in power from 1811 to 1814, the work of organization was vigorously maintained. Improvement of the land-laws gave security of tenure, and afforded facilities for settlers to acquire their holdings. The depredations of Kaffirs on the eastern borders were sternly repressed by regular troops, and in 1812 Graham's Town was founded as head-quarters for the military forces in that region, receiving its name in honour of Colonel Graham, whose energetic operations had driven 20,000 invaders beyond the Great Fish River. Important events occurred during the governorship of Lord Charles Somerset from 1814 to 1826. In 1815 discontent arose among a number of the Boers, or Dutch farmers of the interior, partly caused by a really beneficial change in their tenure of land, partly by laws that gave Hottentots redress for ill-usage. An open rebellion was crushed, with some loss of life, by British troops and loyal burghers, and five of the insurgents were convicted and hanged, a measure of just severity which thenceforth maintained outward loyalty, but was bitterly remembered by that class of our subjects. In 1820 and 1821 a further barrier against native attacks on the eastern frontier was created by a scheme of colonization for which Parliament voted the sum of £50,000. About 4000 new settlers, including a small body of Scottish immigrants, were landed in Algoa Bay, and the main body, after a year or two of initial difficulty, began to prosper in the Albany district, on the south side of the lower course of Great Fish River. It was at this time that Port Elizabeth was founded on the shore of Algoa Bay, and named after his wife by Sir Rufane Donkin, acting-Governor in the absence of Lord Charles Somerset. The boundaries of the colony were extended, on the east, to the Keiskama River, and two military posts were established after desperate fighting with a great host of Kaffirs. In this contest, which may be regarded as the first of a series of Kaffir wars,

the natives, headed by a chieftain named Makana, were repulsed from Grahamstown by a company of the 38th Regiment and a body of Hottentot troops, 320 men in all, strengthened by some field-guns, with the loss of 500 of their bravest warriors left dead on the ground, and about twice as many more severely wounded. The victors lost but eight men in inflicting this terrible repulse. Mr. Theal's *History of the Cape Colony* should be consulted for many interesting and, in some cases, romantic particulars concerning this and other contests with these gallant opponents of British arms in South Africa. Amidst material progress in this quarter of the empire, we may here notice the establishment, in 1818, of the collection of books at Cape Town which was to become so famous and valuable as the "South African Public Library"; and the foundation, in 1820, by the Board of Admiralty, of the Royal Observatory. The rule of Lord Charles Somerset, resumed in December, 1821, was not popular. He placed much restriction on the liberty of the press, and in 1822 issued a proclamation which forbade all persons to convene or attend public meetings for any purpose, without the previous sanction of the Governor or of the *landdrost* (judge or magistrate) of the district. Complaints to the home-government caused, after inquiry by a Royal Commission, the appointment, in 1825, of an Executive Council of six members to assist and advise the Governor of Cape Colony. In the same year, the English language was first employed, instead of Dutch, in "ordinances" and proclamations, and the residents of Cape Town soon became obliged to have their children taught to speak English, for social as well as commercial use. Judicial proceedings were first conducted in English in 1827, and in the following year all documents issued from the Colonial Secretary's office were required to be so published. Official notifications in the *Government Gazette* were still for many years made in both languages.

In 1828 a great judicial reform was effected in the establishment of a Supreme Court consisting of a chief justice and three puisne (inferior, assistant) judges, all appointed by the Crown. Since 1806 the judges in the colony had been nominated by the Governor and were removable at his pleasure. At the same time, the old Dutch *landdrosts* and *heemraden* were superseded by resident magistrates and civil commissioners in the country districts for the administration of justice and the general direction of affairs.

In the following year, British rule was honoured by the issue of an Order in Council assigning "all and every right, benefit, and privilege enjoyed by other British subjects" to "all Hottentots and other free persons of colour lawfully residing within the Colony". It was in 1833 that the Act abolishing slavery throughout the British colonial dominions placed all dwellers in Cape Colony on the same level as regards personal freedom. The slave-owners received the sum of £1,247,000 as their share of the £20,000,000 voted by Parliament, an award which was denounced as "confiscation" on the ground that the emancipated slaves were worth above 3 millions. In October of the same year, the colonists were, for the first time, in some degree represented in the government through the creation of a Legislative Council consisting of five *ex-officio* members, and of five to seven members chosen by the Governor from among the chief citizens. The colony had been making steady progress for some years prior to 1835. In 1829 the South African College was founded by means of capital subscribed by citizens desirous of superior education for their sons, and, with aid from the Government and subsequent benefactions, it became a very valuable institution. New towns and villages had arisen, and the country was being opened up in the construction of good roads. The good work of missions was actively pursued by the London, the Rhenish, the Paris Evangelical, the Berlin, and other societies, special success being obtained among the Basutos. In the eastern districts of the colony, in particular, great progress was made in agricultural and commercial affairs. Grahamstown, in 1834, contained nearly 4000 people, besides the military element, and Port Elizabeth, with 1200 inhabitants, was also becoming a flourishing centre of trade. All over the country, the landscape was made fairer by the view of comfortable farmhouses, and a friendly feeling grew between the new English settlers and the old Dutch colonists, often marked by marriages of the rising generation. Darker days were at hand, bringing renewal of conflict with the more warlike natives, and a great secession of the Dutch farmers, which, after serious trouble, ended happily in the foundation of the colony of Natal. The "Great Trek (travel by waggon) of the Boers", beginning in 1835, will be related, with its chief causes, incidents, and results, in the history of Natal.

The Kaffir War of 1835 began with an invasion made by several

thousand warriors across the south-eastern frontier. In the last days of December, 1834, the country was swept with the plunder and burning of farmhouses, the slaughter of the males, and the retirement of the raiders with a vast booty in horses, horned cattle, and all kinds of property. About 2000 settlers, reduced to destitution, fled to Grahamstown, and the total losses were officially proved to amount to about 5500 horses, over 110,000 cattle, nearly 160,000 sheep, and 455 houses, involving the ruin of 7000 colonists. The Colonial Office in London had greatly reduced the military force, and Colonel Somerset, in charge of the frontier, could only muster 400 infantry and 200 mounted Hottentots, all assembled for the defence of Grahamstown. On the last day of 1834, a mounted messenger brought the tidings to Cape Town. Sir Benjamin D'Urban, recently become Governor, sent four companies of infantry and a troop of horse under Colonel Smith, whom we have seen at a later day as Sir Harry Smith, victorious at Aliwal and Sobraon, in the First Sikh War. The men marched, almost without rest, for six days and nights, and were quickly followed by the Governor himself, bringing up a most welcome reinforcement in the 72nd Regiment (now the Seaforth Highlanders), which had just reached the Cape on the way to India. Orders had been issued for "commandos" of the farmers, and for Hottentot levies, and every male inhabitant on the scene of action, capable of service, was bidden to take arms under a proclamation of martial law. The Boers turned out in large numbers, and the whole body swept forward into the enemy's country in irresistible strength. The fierce, retributive march was only stayed on the eastern bank of the Kei River, and the hostile chiefs made a prompt submission. Fifty thousand head of cattle and 1000 horses were given up in part compensation for the losses of the settlers, and a gratifying result of this expedition was the liberation of an enslaved people called Fingos. These hapless persons, numbering 4000 men, 6600 women, and 11,700 children, were the remnants of once powerful tribes that had been dispersed and driven southwards by the conquests of a great Zulu chieftain named Tshaka, and had since then been in bondage among the Amaxosa Kaffirs, the authors of the recent invasion, and had been treated with the utmost contumely and cruelty. They welcomed, as a matter of course, the British expedition of reprisal, and gave useful information and other aid.

The greater part made their way to our camp, and Sir Benjamin D'Urban, to the intense disgust of those who saw their prey slipping from their grasp, resolved to rescue them for ever from the clutch of savage masters. They were permitted to equip themselves, at the enemy's cost, with all that was needful for a new career of liberty and peace, and it was a cheering sight for British troops and settlers when the Fingos passed into Cape Colony, the men driving forward many thousands of cattle to stock the lands to be allotted, the women laden with baskets of corn, sleeping-mats, milking-buckets, and cooking-pots, and bearing on their backs one or more infant children. The rescued nation, as they marched exultingly on, broke into snatches of wild, rejoicing, and triumphant song, crying to each other again and again, as if continued repetition could alone assure them of their almost incredible luck, "We go to the place of the good people". This exodus from the house of bondage, the passing of the Kei by the liberated Fingos, occurred on May 7th, 1835. They have never ceased to be grateful, loyal, and useful subjects of the power that set them free. It is painful to have to relate that further conflicts with the Kaffirs were made inevitable by the conduct of Lord Glenelg, then in charge of the Colonies under Lord Melbourne. Sir Benjamin D'Urban had proposed to extend the eastern boundary of the colony to the Kei River, and to secure the country against future inroads by driving the Kaffirs beyond the Kei and establishing a chain of military posts. The recent invasion had been wholly unprovoked, but the Whig official in London, knowing nothing of the Kaffir character, chose to adopt a "pacific policy", ordering the British forces to be withdrawn within the old boundary of the Fish River, and appointing agents at different points to whom farmers robbed of cattle must make complaint, and never dare, without permission, to follow the *spoor* or tracks of the animals and Kaffir thieves, and so engage in attempts at personal reprisal. The English settlers were amazed and indignant; the Dutch farmers (Boers) were more than ever resolved to quit the colony; the Kaffirs, as everyone in Cape Colony knew they would, regarded indulgence as proceeding from weakness or fear; D'Urban, like a man of spirit, promptly resigned his office, and was succeeded by Sir George Napier. The Kaffirs then resumed possession of their fastnesses in the Amatola Mountains, of which D'Urban's proposed extension of the frontier would for ever

have deprived them, and soon, on a smaller scale, but in a continuous fashion that caused great total loss, they again attacked the frontier-farms, carrying off cattle with the occasional burning of houses and murder of men. For ten years the colonists near the border had to endure this state of affairs, and the feeling in favour of representative rule, and of freedom from the control of officials in London, grew ever stronger throughout the land.

Before proceeding to a brief account of another Kaffir war due to the policy initiated by Lord Glenelg and carried out by the successors of the wise and energetic D'Urban, it is pleasing to note a great educational advance in the colony. There were free government-schools in the larger places, and a few private schools, chiefly in the eastern districts, but the backward state of elementary education for European children is shown by the fact that in 1839 only 500 pupils were being instructed at government-schools throughout the colony. The change that came was mainly due to the suggestions and personal efforts of Sir John Herschel, the eminent astronomer, whom we have seen elsewhere in this record. Residing near Table Bay, for scientific observation, from January, 1834, to May, 1838, he saw the intellectual wants of the people, and framed an admirable system of national education and public schools which was carried out in a sagacious and liberal manner by Sir George Napier, the Governor, and his Colonial Secretary, Mr. Henry Montagu. School Commissions, including the resident clergymen and justices of the peace, were appointed in each district. Pecuniary aid was awarded to properly conducted schools, and to the existing mission-schools for coloured children. Herschel, on his return to England in 1838, busied himself, amidst all his other labours, in selecting and sending out suitable teachers, and a good beginning was made in the work which, in the census-returns of 1875, showed 62 per cent of Europeans, and 16 per cent of mixed races, as able to read and write. In 1843, the establishment of "Road Boards" led to a great improvement in the colonial communications. In 1846, we find wool rising, with an export of 3¼ millions of pounds weight, to the prominent position which it was to hold among the products of South Africa.

In the same year, the "War of the Axe", long prepared for by the Kaffir chief Sandili, came to trouble the eastern border. The struggle derives its name from its immediate origin in the arrest of

a Kaffir for the theft of an axe. Manacled to a Hottentot, he was being taken by a small guard of men to Grahamstown, when a large party of Kaffirs appeared and released their friend by the simple process of severing the arm of the Hottentot, who bled to death, helpless through the flight of the guard who had to run for their lives. This atrocious outrage took place on British territory, and Sandili's refusal to surrender the murderers brought a declaration of war. At the outset, some ill-success attended our operations. A British force of 1500 men, including companies of the 91st Foot, and the 7th Dragoons, and the Cape Mounted Rifles, was led by Colonel Somerset, with a train of nearly 100 waggons laden with baggage, ammunition, and stores, into a difficult jungly country at a spot called Burn's Hill. A sudden attack by a great host of Kaffirs caused a retreat, with severe loss of life, and the capture of more than half the waggons. The enemy then poured across the frontier in force, and made their way close to Grahamstown, but they were repelled from all fortified posts, though they succeeded in capturing another waggon-train near the Great Fish River. The Dragoon Guards and some mounted Hottentots, on one occasion, caught a large force of Kaffirs on open ground, and cut down some hundreds before they could make their way into the "bush", the loss to the assailants being but one soldier killed and three officers slightly wounded. This affair made a great impression on the native mind, and on the arrival of reinforcements from England, the strongholds of the Amatola Mountains were attacked by columns moving at once from south, east, and west. Before the close of 1847, the two Kaffir chieftains, Macomo and Sandili, came into the British lines by voluntary surrender. Sir Harry Smith now arrived as Governor and "High Commissioner", and took a high tone towards the beaten Kaffirs. Knowing, as he deemed, the right way to deal with them, he made Macomo kneel down and then placed his foot, in downright boot-and-spur reality, upon his bended neck. To Sandili he said: "I am the chief of Kaffirland. From me, as the representative of the Queen of England, you all hold your land. My word shall be your law, else I will sweep you from the face of the earth." Early in 1848, Sir Harry was at King William's Town, near the east coast, and there he made a number of Kaffir chiefs, in presence of about two thousand of their countrymen, kiss his boot in token of submission. The Keiskama River

was then declared to be the eastern boundary of the colony, but British sovereignty was proclaimed over the region between that river and the Kei, as "British Kaffraria".

In 1848 the Anglican Church in South Africa was fairly started on a flourishing career by the appointment of Dr. Gray as Bishop of Cape Town, the see being endowed by the munificence of Miss (afterwards Baroness) Burdett-Coutts. A large staff of active clergy accompanied and followed the prelate, and a great impulse was given to educational and missionary work throughout the colony. The following year witnessed a struggle between the colonists and the Colonial Secretary in London, the late Earl Grey, who had procured an Order in Council making a penal station at the Cape for British convicts. The ship *Neptune* arrived at Simon's Bay with 300 prisoners on board, but the people prevented their landing. After the lapse of five months the vessel was ordered to convey her criminal cargo to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), and in February, 1850, the Order in Council was revoked. As a matter of fact, no white man known to be a felon had ever been permitted to set foot on South African soil, and all the colonists, new settlers and old, English and Dutch, with the most loyal feelings towards Great Britain, alike rejoiced in the victory thus obtained over official obstinacy and unwisdom. The next step in advance was the issue in May, 1850, of letters-patent from the Crown, empowering the Governor and Legislative Council to establish a representative government consisting of two elective Chambers. For the time, however, measures connected with self-government were set aside by the outbreak of another, and that a very serious and lengthy Kaffir war. Sandili, undeterred by previous defeat, again took the field with his warriors, now well armed with muskets as well as with assegais and clubs. In the last week of December, 1850, the Kaffirs, treacherously informed of the British movements by a body of police in our service who afterwards went over to their countrymen, attacked a column, 700 strong, consisting of British infantry-detachments and Cape Mounted Rifles, in the Boomah Pass, a defile near the Keiskama River. Our men, assailed with musketry by thousands of natives in ambush behind rocks and in thickets, fought their way through with a loss of about 70 killed and wounded. The news was sent through Kaffirland by signal-fires flashing from peak to peak, and all the eastern

frontier was quickly wrapped, figuratively and literally, in the flames of war. Three "military" villages, inhabited by settlers retired from our service, were attacked and burnt, with the slaughter of every man that was taken. On all sides, British troops were forced to retire before overwhelming numbers, and Sir Harry Smith himself, besieged at Fort Cox, narrowly escaped destruction in a bold dash through the enemy's forces at the head of some 200 Cape Mounted Rifles who had remained faithful to our colours. There were only 1800 British troops in the colony, of whom above half were shut up in fortified posts, and the war continued for more than two years, with alternations of success and much devastation of colonial farms. Large numbers of Hottentots, ungrateful for the good treatment of more than twenty years, joined the foe. The stubborn courage of British soldiers, in repelling attacks on our little forts, and in the endurance of burning sun and of torrents of rain and of harassing night-marches, made a gradual impression on foes who had hoped for an easy victory. The arrival of reinforcements enabled the Governor to assume the offensive towards the close of 1851. Several of the Kaffir strongholds were stormed; part of the enemy's country was scoured, with the destruction of crops and kraals; and in January, 1852, two columns of our troops returned to King William's Town with 60,000 head of cattle, besides horses and goats, and with some thousands of Fingos released from slavery among the Kaffirs. In the spring of the same year, Sir Harry Smith, with health much worn by incessant labours, quitted Cape Town amidst general expressions of regret, and was succeeded in office by Sir George Cathcart, a Waterloo veteran, who was soon to fall on the glorious day of Inkermann. This very capable commander, having at his disposal regular troops that included eight regiments of infantry, a battalion of the Rifle Brigade, the 60th Rifles, the 12th Lancers, artillerymen, and engineers, in addition to large auxiliary forces, was enabled to adopt vigorous and successful measures. Not only were the Kaffirs driven in succession from every fastness, but each point thus occupied was permanently held by means of small defensible turrets surrounded by stone walls with sufficient shelter for a large party of men in case of need. A guard of a score of soldiers held the post with stores of food and ammunition, and the neighbouring country was constantly patrolled. A permanent force of armed and mounted

European police was also formed, and has proved of the utmost service to the colony. The Amatola Mountains and the Kroome Mountains were thoroughly cleared of the foe, and in March, 1853, the Governor received the submission of the principal Kaffir chiefs. Fingos and Europeans became possessed of farms on the forfeited lands of Kaffirs and Hottentot rebels; the Amatola country was held by numerous posts, and the frontier on the east was, for the first time, made really secure by the presence of a military police ready for instant service, and of a body of settlers all accustomed to the use of arms.

The close of this long and costly struggle opened a new era for Cape Colony. The days of trouble were ended; the time of material and moral progress had fully arrived. The wool-trade was making a steady advance; good roads and public buildings were everywhere being constructed; municipal institutions had been training men for a useful part in public affairs; the educational system was doing for Europeans what the mission-schools had long striven, with some success, to effect for natives; the newspaper, with all its civilizing powers, was abroad; ignorance and prejudice were vanishing before the enlightened views of those who held that the union of interests is the one secure bond for men of diverse races and ideas, and that legislation and government should have for their sole aim the common welfare of all classes of a nation. Above all, the colonists were now, in the choice of their rulers, to take a personal share in the management of their own affairs. It was fitting that at such a time one of the greatest of all colonial rulers should be intrusted with the task of government. On July 1st, 1854, the first Parliament of Cape Colony assembled at Cape Town. Sir George Cathcart had been recalled to command a division of troops in the Crimean War, and before the close of the year he was succeeded by Sir George Grey, K.C.B. This eminent man, of enduring fame in colonial history, was descended from a branch of the Greys of Groby, the ancient and noble house whose most famous scion was Lady Jane Grey. He is to be carefully distinguished from Sir George Grey, Bart., who was for a few months Colonial Secretary at this time, but is best known as Home Secretary from 1846 to 1852 under Lord John Russell, and in the same office under both Lord Palmerston and his former chief as Earl Russell. Sir George Grey, the great colonial governor, was

a son of Lieut.-Colonel Grey, who was killed at Badajoz, in the Peninsular War. Educated at Sandhurst, he entered the army, quitting it ten years later, as captain, in 1839. Before his appointment to Cape Colony, he had gained high credit as an Australian explorer, as Governor of South Australia, and, especially, as Governor of New Zealand from 1845 to Dec. 1853, in which capacities we shall see him, and again as Governor and Premier of New Zealand, at later stages of this history. One of his first acts in Cape Colony was to pacify certain disbanded Hottentot troops, whose promised pensions had been, in great part, unjustly withheld by the War Office in London. The money to satisfy their claims was voted by the Cape Parliament, and new confidence was aroused in the native mind. The new ruler then adopted important measures with reference to the Kaffirs. Seeking to break down the power of the chiefs in British Kaffraria, where they sat as magistrates and levied fines which they took for themselves, he assigned to them fixed salaries as assessors merely of European magistrates, and appointed head-men or councillors who, becoming rivals of the chiefs in rule, by degrees won the people over to the cause of British government. The influence of "witch-doctors", used by the chiefs as a means of oppressing wealthy natives in the extortion of money by charges of witchcraft, was undermined by Sir George Grey with admirable wisdom and success. He brought science to the discomfiture of arrant chicanery, imposture, and fraud. The troops left idle by the close of the war were employed in the construction, at King William's Town, near the south-east frontier, of the great building afterwards known as "The Grey Hospital". The Kaffirs quarried stone which the military waggons carried to the site prepared. The sappers dug the foundations and the soldiers laid the stones. Extra pay rewarded the willing zeal of men whose hands, accustomed to the musket and sword, were plying the chisel and the trowel. Organization and discipline, enlisted in a work of mercy to mankind, gave a speedy finish to the noble undertaking. The wards of the hospital soon received natives suffering from disease, and Kaffir youths were there instructed in the simpler methods of treating the more common maladies of their country and race. The growth of trust in the European knowledge whose possessors mocked at the professions of witch-doctors was fatal to the cause of imposture, and the down-

fall of a belief in witchcraft did much to further British influence among the Kaffirs.

In 1857, the leading men of the Amaxosa tribes made use of a wide-spread delusion among their people in a scheme for the annihilation of European power in South Africa. The terrible tragedy which ensued is one of the strangest events in modern history. A girl had come forward with prophetic claims. She professed, and was fully believed by the people, to have had access to long-dead Kaffir chieftains in the other world, and to have returned thence with commands and promises which no Kaffir must dare to disregard. The whole of the horned cattle, crops, pigs, sheep, fowls, and all other kinds of sustenance were to be destroyed, and then, reduced to absolute destitution, the nation was to see their ancestors rise from the dead with countless herds of cattle of a noble breed, and with abundant property of every kind, while a hurricane swept away from South Africa every trace of the Europeans. The records of this event are beyond all suspicion. Sir George Grey went in person and pointed out to the Kaffir chiefs the suicidal nature of the proposed course, but his words had no avail against those of the demented girl. He returned to make military preparations against an invasion to which desperation might urge people maddened by delusion and famine. At the same time, with great daring and skill, some of the principal chiefs were seized, and for lack of leaders no movement of importance was made. The commands of the prophetess had been, however, in part executed, and above 50,000 natives perished from starvation. The Governor did all that was possible for relief, bringing in many thousands of natives to work as servants among the colonists on fixed wages for fixed terms of years, and settling others on farms in British Kaffraria. Some of the country left void by the Amaxosas was colonized with success by about 2000 men of the "German Legion" disbanded at the close of the Crimean War, and by some thousands of North German settlers of the agricultural class who were placed along the Buffalo River on the east coast. The prompt and most valuable action of Sir George Grey in despatching to India, on the outbreak of the Sepoy revolt in 1857, every man and horse that could be spared from the colony, with two batteries of Royal Artillery, and large supplies of ammunition and other military stores, illustrates the character of the man. He even dared to

divert to Calcutta, on his own sole responsibility, the troops who were on their way to China for service along with French troops. The horses from his own private stables were among those sent to Calcutta, and he went afoot for some time in his zeal for the general interests of the empire. His influence with the Kaffir chiefs was such that, at personal interviews, he obtained their promise, which was faithfully kept, for the maintenance of peace and order at a time when the colony had been almost denuded of regular troops.

After being recalled in June, 1859, and returning to England for a brief time, Sir George Grey, at the strongly-expressed wish of the colonists, and by the Queen's own suggestion to a new Colonial Secretary, returned to the Cape as Governor early in 1860, and received an enthusiastic welcome. In August and September, a great display of loyal feeling, both from the Europeans and the Kaffirs, greeted the arrival and progress through the colony of Prince Alfred (afterwards Duke of Edinburgh and of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha), who came as a midshipman on board H.M.S. *Euryalus*. An excursion was made on horseback through Cape Colony, Kaffraria, the Orange River Free State, and Natal, and the royal lad enjoyed the novel experience of rough lodging and fare in camp beneath the Southern Cross, with fire brightly burning amidst the clumsy Cape waggons "out-spanned" for the night. Sandili, the Kaffir chief, and some of his friends, were induced to overcome their innate dread of the sea and to make a voyage on the *Euryalus* from Natal to Cape Town. They suffered horribly from sickness, but were greatly impressed, amidst all their trouble, by the wondrous things which they beheld on the ship, and not least by the sight of the prince when he resumed his duties as "middy", and rose at dawn to assist, barefooted, in washing down the decks. In an address presented to Captain Tarleton of the *Euryalus*, the Kaffir chiefs declared that, amidst many matters beyond their comprehension, they did understand "the reason of England's greatness, when the son of her great Queen becomes subject to a subject that he may learn wisdom", and averred that "your mighty Queen shall be our Sovereign in all time coming". The progress of the colony at this period is indicated by the facts that the construction of a railway from Cape Town to Wellington, 50 miles north-east, was well advanced; that Prince Alfred, on September 17th, laid the first stone of the much-needed break-

water in Table Bay; that he inaugurated the splendid new Library and Museum, an institution then already furnished with between 30,000 and 40,000 volumes, the whole enterprise being mainly due to the influence and encouragement of Sir George Grey; and that in 1860 the value of wool exported from the Cape reached nearly 1½ millions sterling. In the following year, Sir George Grey was transferred to his second governorship of New Zealand, and he quitted Cape Colony after a rule of nearly eight years' duration, nobly and durably marked by the steady reduction of anarchy to order, by the firm establishment of representative government, and by material, moral, and intellectual advance. His priceless services to the Queen's subjects in South Africa were crowned in 1864 by the presentation, to the Cape Town Public Library opened by Prince Alfred, of all his literary treasures, forming one of the finest private collections in the world. This magnificent gift included an unrivalled body of publications and manuscripts concerning the languages and ethnology of Africa and Polynesia; MSS. in Latin and modern tongues, written between the tenth and fifteenth centuries; large numbers of early black-letter printed books; the first complete edition of Chaucer's works (with the exception of the *Ploughman's Tale*), printed in 1532; the only complete copy of the First Folio Edition of Shakespeare's plays existing out of Europe; the very rare first edition of Young's *Night Thoughts*, 1743; and the first edition of Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*, published in 1621. The South African Library thus became third in point of size, and first in order of importance and value, amongst all colonial collections of literary treasures.

The chief events that occurred during the governorship of Sir Philip E. Wodehouse (1861–1870) were the incorporation of British Kaffraria and the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West. By the former, in 1865, the Kei River became the eastern boundary of Cape Colony. At the same time, the growth of population caused an increase in the number of constituencies represented in the Assembly, and the Legislative Council was also enlarged. The first diamond was found by accident in 1867 and passed through many hands before its value was suspected. In 1870, exploring parties, one chiefly composed of officers of the 20th Regiment, then stationed in Natal, and another made up of Cape colonists from King William's Town, began systematic searching as they dug and

washed the alluvial drift along the banks of the Vaal River, and the speedy discovery of stones gave an impulse to the enterprise which afterwards produced such remarkable results. In 1869, a Dutch farmer, Van Niekirk, had purchased from a Griqua, for £400, a diamond which he at once re-sold for £10,000. This fine gem, weighing 46½ carats, after cutting, was styled "The Star of South Africa", and the news caused the first great rush of diggers to the region about fifty miles north-east of the point where the Vaal River joins the Orange. A population of 10,000 diggers was soon engaged in the search for wealth in this new and unexpected form. Sir Henry Barkly was the Queen's representative in rule from 1870 to 1877, as Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner in South Africa. In 1872 the country reached its highest point of constitutional development in receiving "responsible government". By Order in Council, members of the Executive Council henceforth held seats and voted in one of the Houses of the Cape Parliament, and the first ministry, with Sir J. C. Molteno as Premier, was formed in November of the above year. In 1875, the census showed a population of about 721,000, of whom nearly 237,000 were of European descent.

Two years later, the advent of Sir Bartle Frere, formerly governor of Bombay, as Governor and High Commissioner, proved to be the signal for more or less disastrous and discreditable warfare. The Kaffirs on the frontier had, by their conduct, already caused Sir Henry Barkly to appoint a Commission to consider the best means of defending the Colony. After a struggle with the Galekas and the Gaikas, ending in 1878 with the forfeiture of the Gaika territory, a general disarmament of the Kaffirs on the frontier was made. It is impossible here to deal at length with the history of the Zulus, who were at this time the most powerful native tribe in South Africa, ruled by a man of energy, ability, and courage named Cetewayo. He had always striven to maintain friendly relations with the British Government, and was now provoked to hostility by the unjust and hasty action of Sir Bartle Frere. After being treated unfairly in the matter of some territory disputed between himself and the Boers of the Transvaal Republic, Cetewayo received a sudden demand from the British ruler that he should disband his powerful army, and thus lay himself helpless at the feet of those whom he now had cause to fear, and of his

inveterate enemies the Boers. To this outrageous order the Zulu sovereign made the only possible reply, in the shape of a prompt refusal, that could come from a brave, independent, and high-spirited chieftain. In the first days of 1879 the British troops, under Lord Chelmsford, crossed the Tugela River, the boundary between Zululand and Natal. On January 22nd one division of our army, under Colonel Glyn, was surprised and almost annihilated at the battle of Isandula (or Isandlana) by the warriors under Cetewayo, who rushed fearlessly, armed with their spears, to meet showers of bullets from the breech-loading rifle. One British regiment was almost destroyed, and hundreds of the colonial irregulars also perished. The colony of Natal was only saved from invasion and devastation through the gallant defence of the position at Rorke's Drift, on the banks of the Tugela, by a small force under Majors Bromhead and Chard. The struggle could, of course, have only one termination when the British troops were properly handled. On July 4th, Lord Chelmsford totally defeated Cetewayo at the battle of Ulundi, where the brave savages fell in thousands under the incessant fire of our men before the Zulu leader and the survivors of his host quitted the field. By this time Sir Garnet Wolseley had arrived from England to take the control of affairs, and in August the brave Cetewayo was hunted down by an officer and party of men, and brought a prisoner to Cape Town. In the summer of 1882 he was brought on a visit to London, and, being then restored for a time to a portion of his former power, he was defeated by a rival chief, fled for refuge to our territory, and soon died, a broken, worn-out man. In 1879, the territory of Cape Colony was increased by the annexation of the Kaffir districts known as Fingoland, the Idutywa Reserve, and Griqualand East, and the following year saw the incorporation of Griqualand West.

The policy of the Colonial Office in London led to the contest with the Boers of the Transvaal. In 1878, the Colonial Secretary, the Earl of Carnarvon, acting on false information as to the wishes of the people, annexed the territory of the Boer republic to our South African possessions, and maintained this action in spite of the strong representations of Boer deputies in England. The proceeding was strongly condemned by Mr. Gladstone, in 1879, in the famous Mid-Lothian speeches, and the Boers were thereby

encouraged to revolt. At the close of 1880 they declared the Transvaal to be once more an independent state, and prepared to defend their position by force of arms. In spite of their small numbers they proved to be formidable foes in the field, from their excellence as marksmen and their skill in irregular warfare. A detachment of the 94th regiment, 250 strong, commanded by Colonel Anstruther, was severely defeated by the Dutchmen on December 20th. All the officers were picked off; about 40 men were killed, and nearly 80 wounded. Anstruther surrendered to the enemy, and afterwards died of his wounds. Sir George Colley took the command of our forces, but his rashness soon caused fresh disaster. At Laing's Nek and Ingogo, in January, 1881, the murderous fire of the Boers gained easy victories over our men, and on February 27th, Sir George and his little army were again defeated at the fatal Majuba Hill, which was ascended and stormed by the enemy with the utmost ease and success. Sir George was killed; the other officers were nearly all shot down, and a large number of men became prisoners of war. The honour of our arms was redeemed by the gallant and successful defence of many towns and military posts, until the arrival of large reinforcements, with Sir Evelyn Wood in command, placed our rulers in South Africa, with 13,000 men, in a position of overwhelming strength. It was thought by many patriotic persons that an unqualified submission should have been extorted from the rebels, but the ministry headed by Mr. Gladstone yielded to his protests against the "blood-guiltiness" of avenging defeats, or forcing unconditional surrender. The Pretoria Convention re-established the Transvaal Republic under the suzerainty of Great Britain, with conditions which secured the rights of the native tribes from greedy and unscrupulous encroachment. Our Government also reserved a right of veto over any treaties which the Transvaal State might conclude with any foreign power.

The recall of Sir Bartle Frere, in 1880, from the scene of his mischievous activity was followed by rapid changes in the men who held office as Governors or as "Administrators" in Cape Colony and its dependencies. Between 1880 and 1889, a veteran Colonial ruler, Sir Hercules Robinson, G.C.M.G., the late Lord Rosmead, was three times Governor. In 1885 Tembuland, Galekaland, and Bomvanaland were annexed to the Colony. The

Xesibe country was added in the following year. Colonial progress, during this period, was indicated by the extension of the railway-system to Kimberley, the diamond-centre in Griqualand West, and in December, 1887, the South African Jubilee Exhibition was opened at Grahamstown. In the following year, 1888, we find a due recognition of present facts, and an anticipation of future development, displayed in a conference held at Cape Town, where delegates from the Colony, from Natal, and the Orange Free State, discussed the question of a Customs Union and Railway Extension. In 1889 Sir Henry B. (the late Lord) Loch, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., who ruled Victoria from 1884 to 1889, became Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner for South Africa. The Premier, who held office from July, 1890, until the beginning of the year 1896, was a man of remarkable ability, energy, and ambition, Mr. Cecil J. Rhodes. Born in July, 1853, younger son of the vicar of Bishop-Stortford in Hertfordshire, he went out as a youth to Natal; gained a fortune at the Kimberley diamond-fields; returned to England and graduated at Oxford; went to Cape Colony and was elected a member of the House of Assembly, where he soon showed his qualities, and became a foremost advocate for the extension of British territory and South African federation. As a director of the British South African Company Mr. Rhodes was eager in promoting railway-works in the country towards the Zambesi River, with the view of connecting Cape Town with Fort Salisbury, the capital of Mashonaland. As head of the Cape Ministry, he aimed at bringing the two Boer republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, into an intimate friendly and fiscal union with Cape Colony and Natal, as an important step towards a Federation composed of all British territory in South Africa—colonies, dependencies, protectorates, and spheres of influence.

The prospect of South African federation, through arrangements which might include the two republics, was suddenly darkened by the strange, unfortunate, and, in some aspects, discreditable invasion of the Transvaal territory, which will be known in history as the "Jameson Raid". It was certain that difficulties would arise when the adventurous and ambitious Mr. Rhodes, a man worthy of the Elizabethan rather than of the Victorian age, came face to face in South Africa with the typical Boer, Paul Krüger, President of the Transvaal Republic. This able, unscrupulous, strong-willed states-

man, shrewd and humorous, of rugged exterior, was ruling, with unbounded influence, a people, politically and socially, of a very jealous and exclusive character. The London Convention of 1884, by which the British suzerainty was restricted to the control of the foreign relations of the Transvaal, under the observation of our Diplomatic Agent, represented almost the sole connection of the Boers with the outside world until the discovery of mineral treasures, and especially of gold, brought a great influx of foreigners. In 1887 the Witwatersrand gold-fields yielded about 35,000 ounces; four years later, the product had risen to nearly 730,000 ounces, and in 1895 the total gold output was nearly 2½ million ounces, with a value exceeding 8½ millions sterling. Johannesburg, the great mining and financial centre of the republic, had risen, in about nine years from its foundation, to a population of forty thousand, with fine public buildings and delightful suburbs. By this time, the foreign settlers in the Transvaal, chiefly drawn thither by the gold-mining, and known as Uitlanders, or Outlanders in Boer-English, greatly outnumbered the Boer population, and there is little doubt that their presence aroused the jealous suspicion of the Boers, including Krüger and his colleagues. The foreign element, creating most of the wealth, and paying by far the larger part of the taxation, of the country, found themselves devoid of any share in its government. They had no rights of citizenship, and scarcely any prospect of acquiring such rights after any number of years of residence. Republican principles were thus being violated by a Boer oligarchy, to the detriment of many thousands of inhabitants, including the chief men of enterprise, energy, experience, and resource, who were building up the greatness of a country which the Boers had only owned for about forty years, which they had done little to develop, and which the Outlanders alone had raised from commercial obscurity to a wealthy and highly progressive condition.

The Dutch or Afrikander and the English population of all South Africa had been long and greatly agitated by the controversy on the Uitlander-question in the Transvaal, when the world, in the very last days of 1895, was astounded by news that the Transvaal had been invaded by a British force. Dr. Jameson, Civil Administrator, under the Chartered Company, for Mashonaland and Matabeleland, who had long been in communication with Mr.

Rhodes on the subject of the Outlander grievances, and expected to be helped by a rising of the "Reformers" in Johannesburg, had gathered about five hundred men of the Matabeleland Mounted Police, and the Bechuanaland Border forces, with Sir John Willoughby and other officers, at Pitsani, on the frontier of Bechuanaland and the Transvaal. Dr. Jameson's object, as stated by himself at a later period, was to occupy Johannesburg and maintain order, while pressure was brought to bear on the Transvaal Government for the redress of grievances. On December 30th, 1895, in the early morning, the troops under Dr. Jameson and Sir John Willoughby crossed the frontier into the Transvaal, and marched for Johannesburg, nearly two hundred miles distant. The lawless and foolish enterprise was already doomed to fail. The Boer Government was prepared with a large force, and Dr. Jameson's confederates in the Transvaal betrayed him, hoisting the Transvaal flag on December 31st, and "making a clean breast" of the whole plan to President Krüger on the following day. On the evening of Tuesday, December 31st, the invaders came upon the Boers, outnumbering them by six to one, and posted in a strong position, among little valleys and low hills, at Krügersdorp, a few miles west of Johannesburg. The way to that town was blocked, and the British troops suffered some loss in an attack on the position. An attempt was then made to outflank the enemy, but the "raiders" were again stopped at a place called Doornkop, where the Boers were securely posted behind ridges of rock commanding long open slopes in front, on two sides of an angle. The British were soon almost surrounded, and, with ammunition failing, they became helpless on ground swept with the fire of rifles, Maxims, and other guns. On Thursday, January 2nd, at eleven in the morning, their last shot had been spent, and the waving of a white flag was followed by the surrender of the whole of the survivors. The number of killed and wounded exceeded one hundred, with small loss to the Boers. The prisoners included Dr. Jameson, Sir John Willoughby, and about twenty other officers, some of them wounded.

The movement was disavowed in the plainest terms by the High Commissioner for South Africa, Sir Hercules Robinson, and by the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and after a brief lapse of time the prisoners were released by the Transvaal authorities, to be dealt with by the British Government. Mr.

Rhodes at once resigned his post as Premier of Cape Colony, and in June, 1896, when an official inquiry held at Cape Town had proved his complicity in the plan for the invasion of the Transvaal, he also resigned his directorship of the Chartered Company. In July, 1896, Dr. Jameson and the chief military officers engaged in the ill-starred enterprise were tried in London, and sentenced to terms of imprisonment for 15 months and shorter periods, with loss of commissions to officers in the imperial army. In 1897, a Committee of the House of Commons held an inquiry into the matter, and their Report acquitted most of the Directors of the Chartered Company of any guilty knowledge of intention to employ the troops of the Company against the South African Republic. Sir Hercules Robinson, who had become Lord Rosmead, and had been most unjustly and calumniously charged with some knowledge of the plan, was most emphatically pronounced free of the slightest implication, and the Committee declared that "under most trying and difficult circumstances the High Commissioner did everything that was possible to maintain the honour of his country". Two of Lord Rosmead's subordinates were severely censured for failing to inform their chief of what they knew concerning the plan of invasion. Mr. Rhodes was censured, in the strongest terms, for "subsidising, organizing, and stimulating an armed insurrection against the government of the South African Republic, and employing the forces and resources of the Chartered Company to support such a revolution". The Committee, after recording "an absolute and unqualified condemnation of the 'Raid', and of the plans which made it possible", stated the result as being, for the time, "grave injury to British influence in South Africa", in the shaking of public confidence, the embittering of race-feeling, and the creation of serious difficulties with neighbouring States.

In connection with this "untoward event", much angry excitement was aroused at the time in the British Isles by the action of the Emperor of Germany. That hot-headed and impulsive personage, who had no political interests in the Transvaal, at once telegraphed to President Krüger his congratulations on the victory over the invaders. This needless proceeding, in which he stood alone among the representatives of civilized nations, was justly regarded as something like a wanton offence against the British government and people. The matter was noticed by the equip-

ment, within the space of a few days, and the dispatch to sea, of a powerful cruising-squadron, as a hint of what might be expected by any foreign power which should venture to interfere with our position or rights or influence in South Africa.

Sir Hercules Robinson, created Lord Rosmead in 1896, resigned his post early in 1897, from advancing age and ill-health, and returned to England to die, a few months later, after a very long and most honourable and distinguished career as a colonial-governor in many parts of the empire, as recorded in these pages. An admirable choice of his successor, at a critical time in South Africa, and under circumstances of great delicacy and difficulty mainly due to the "Jameson Raid", was made in the appointment, as High Commissioner for South Africa, and Governor of Cape Colony, of Sir Alfred Milner, K.C.B., a man in the very prime of middle age, then holding office as Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue. Of great financial experience, author of a standard work entitled *England in Egypt*, Sir Alfred Milner had been engaged for some years in journalistic work after a most brilliant career at Oxford. A graceful and effective speaker, a man of broad intellect and of remarkable strength of character, he had won, in the course of twenty years after leaving his University, golden opinions from able men of all shades of political opinion and all the chief walks in life. He had, in the combination of gentleness and firmness, force, capacity, urbanity, and tact, precisely the qualities needed for success in his new post of duty, and it was well known that he had shown a strong interest in the colonial affairs of "Greater Britain", with special regard to the great self-governing communities.

Cape Colony, besides the annexed territories above given, includes East Griqualand, adjoining Natal; Walfisch Bay, a territory of nearly 450 sq. m., on the west coast, about 400 miles north of the mouth of the Orange River; twelve islands off Angra Pequena, on the west coast; and West Pondoland, a territory as large as Wales, with about ¼ million of natives in a very fertile country. The chief was pensioned off and the land annexed in September 1894. In November, 1895, the area of Cape Colony proper was increased by the addition of the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland. The whole region contains nearly 280,000 square miles, with a population of about 1¾ millions. Of these, in 1891, about 377,000

were Europeans, and, since the annexation of Pondoland, we may reckon the natives at 1,400,000, of whom the greater part are Kaffirs, Fingos, Bechuanas, and Hottentots, with about ¼ million of mixed races, and 14,000 Malays. Of the whites, over 27,000 were born in England, about 6500 in Scotland, over 4000 in Ireland, and 6500 are of German race. The immigration into Cape Colony is not extensive, having only amounted to 23,300 between 1873 and 1884, and the fluctuation of resident people is shown by the fact that in 1892, over 12,600 adults arrived by sea, while over 7800 quitted the Colony by the same route. The geographical details of the territory are of a simple character. A glance at the map shows a coast-line almost devoid of deep indentations, and chiefly presenting bays with wide mouths. For mercantile purposes, the harbours most in use are those of Table Bay, Mossel Bay, Algoa Bay (Port Elizabeth), Port Alfred, and East London, all of which have been improved by various works. The country possesses no lakes, nor any rivers of great size save the Orange, in which navigation upwards from the sea is barred by rapids at about 30 miles from the mouth. Many of the streams are almost dried up in the summer, and in some parts of the colony irrigation-works for storing rain-water have been constructed as the sole means of giving success to cultivation. From the bold and rocky southern coast the land rises inwards by a series of terraces, walled by nearly parallel chains of rugged mountains, intersected by deep ravines. The Lange Berge are succeeded by the Zwarte Berge or Black Mountains, from 4000 to 5500 feet in height. North of this, at an elevation of from 2500 to 3500 feet above sea-level, lies the table-land called the Great Karroo, from 70 to 90 miles in width, with an area of 20,000 square miles composed of undulating plains devoid of trees, and barren-looking under the summer-heat, but covered with excellent grass after rain. Beyond the Karroo comes the watershed, to the north of which all streams make for the Orange River instead of for the coast. This range, varying in height from 5000 to 8000 feet, is at different parts called Sneeuberg, Nieuwveld, Stormberg, Roggeveld, and Kamiesberg, as it runs, with an average distance of 150 miles from the coast, across from the southern part of Namaqualand to the north-east frontier. The eastern part of Cape Colony is better-watered, and far more picturesque and varied in surface than the central and western

districts. The river-courses are marked out by woods, and grassy plains and mountain-glens afford many scenes of beauty and even grandeur to the traveller's eye.

The climate, varying in warmth, according to locality, from cold temperate to sub-tropical, presents upon the whole a rare salubrity and charm, with special fitness for European constitutions. The seasons are not so well marked as in Europe. The delightful spring, with the brightest verdure, and crop after crop of the loveliest flowers covering the plains with a carpet of red, white, or yellow hue, melts into summer with almost imperceptible change. Remembering that the Cape winter corresponds to our summer, and autumn to our spring, we note that in September vernal freshness and beauty are at their height, and that solar heat reaches its maximum in January. The rainfall varies greatly in different regions of the colony. The north-west is almost rainless. The south-west has an abundant downpour in winter. On the south coast rain occurs in all months, with the least fall in December and January. In the middle, north, and east of the country, February and March bring the chief supplies of rain. At Cape Town the average annual amount is about 25 inches; at Port Elizabeth, 23 inches; in the north Karroo, from 7 to 12; and at Kimberley, about 16. The total mean annual temperature is 61·26° in the shade, almost exactly the same as the mean summer temperature of England (62° F.). The grand qualities of the climate in Cape Colony, alike for healthy people and invalids, are the dryness, clearness, and rarefaction of the atmosphere, the great amount of sunlight, and the rarity or non-existence of dangerous epidemic disease. Ague, yellow fever, and cholera are unknown. The fevers are of a mild type, seldom followed by constitutional mischief. The eastern districts are specially healthful, almost wholly free from malarious and endemic diseases, and the history of the settlers for over seventy years, from 1820 to 1896, displays an extraordinary natural increase of population, rare longevity, tall stature, and a healthy physical development such as can only occur under the most favourable conditions of climate and soil. The testimony of experts, writing from personal experience and knowledge, such as Dr. Symes Thompson and other distinguished physicians, has abundantly shown the climate of this part of South Africa to be of the utmost advantage to persons afflicted with pulmonary maladies. The conditions above stated precisely

suit the case of patients suffering from lung-disease and from bronchial and asthmatic affections. Before the opening of the Suez Canal the Cape was a favourite resort of invalids broken down by work in India. They found the winter equally delightful and beneficial in its invigorating freshness, with a rapid clearance of the clouds after rain, and a brightness of sky and a transparency of air astonishing to those who have been only accustomed to judge of distance through the medium of haze.

The timber includes trees well suited for making waggons and house-furniture. The botany is of a very interesting character. The castor-oil plant and others of high medicinal value abound. European gardens and conservatories have been enriched by many beautiful flowering shrubs in heaths, proteas, and pelargoniums, and by charming bulbous plants of the iris, amaryllis, and lily class. The chief indigenous fruit is the "Cape gooseberry", a product of boundless abundance, and of a peculiar and exquisite flavour which have now made it an article of export both in a bottled and a boiled-down condition. Viticulture and its result in very fine grapes have been already noticed. Almost all the fruits of temperate and sub-tropical Europe have been introduced with success, and the gardens and orchards grow apples and pears, apricots and peaches, oranges and figs, pomegranates and limes, walnuts and almonds, with quinces and the banana of tropical climes. The corn-crops comprise wheat, maize, oats, barley, rye, and millet; large quantities of grain, including rice, are grown on the banks of Olifant River, in the north-west, by deposit of the seed in the rich alluvial sediment left behind after overflow in the rainy season. The native fauna of this part of South Africa, formerly so rich both in variety and numbers, have become almost extinct (in the finer forms), through slaughter due to commercial greed or to wanton cruelty, or have retired in disgust before the advance of civilization. It is possible to find elephants and buffaloes in "preserved" tracts of forest in the south-east, but the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, giraffe, and lion, with the eland, zebra, quagga, gnu, and other large game, have for ever vanished from Cape Colony. Tiger-cats, leopards, jackals, hyænas, wild dogs, baboons, monkeys, jerboas, ant-eaters, porcupines, and rabbits are still to be seen. It is among the finer specimens of the deer and antelope tribes that the ruthless hunters of the last half-century in South Africa have wrought the greatest havoc. The eland, noblest

of all the antelopes of the world, with a small game-like head, handsome horns, and slender elegant limbs, has been known to exceed in height nineteen hands (six feet four inches) at the shoulder. The flesh provides the finest venison in Africa, giving forth, freshly killed, the sweet smell of aromatic herbage on which the clean and dainty animal has fed, and, to the eater, resembling fat young beef, with a game-like flavour. A few of these comely, striking, and gentle beasts may be seen in some of our noblemen's parks. In South Africa, long driven beyond the borders of Cape Colony, the eland now roams in the solitudes of the upper Kalahari, the region north of the Orange River, where grasses, melons, and tubers, in the lack of surface-water, supply at once meat and drink to this creature and to the hartebeeste, gemsbok, koodoo, and other specimens of the antelope race. The graceful spring-bok, or Cape gazelle, and various kinds of small antelopes are still found in the wooded eastern districts. There is a great variety of birds, including many birds of prey, with cranes, storks, pelicans, flamingoes, and many game birds for the sportsman's gun. Among peculiar specimens are the ostrich; the secretary-bird, that has its popular name from the plumes of feathers projecting from the back and sides of the head, like bundles of quill-pens stuck behind the ears, and that renders much service as a destroyer and eater of snakes; and the weaver-bird, or social grosbeak, living in assemblages of from 100 to 200 nests arranged like the cells of a honeycomb beneath an umbrella-like roof constructed of coarse grass. The *reptilia* include the iguana, and the cobra, the puff-adder, and other venomous snakes. Spiders, tarantulas, stinging ants, scorpions, and occasional flights of locusts occur. The chief domestic animals are horses of a small and hardy breed; oxen raised for the meat and hides, and largely used for farm-work by the Dutch colonists and for draught in the travelling-waggons; and the merinos of the finest breeds which have replaced the native big-tailed hairy sheep owned by the former Dutch occupants. Angora goats are largely kept for the sake of their long, soft, beautiful, white, silky and woolly outer coat furnishing the material called mohair, which is made into camlets, plush, shawls, braidings and other trimmings, and, in France, into a kind of lace.

In mineral wealth, the discovery of diamonds has placed Cape Colony among the foremost countries of the world. Since 1870,

when diamonds were first discovered in the loose red surface-sand near the spot where the town of Kimberley stands, apart from the previous river-diggings, the famous De Beers, Dutoitspan, Bultfontein, and Kimberley Mines, all lying within a circle of 3½ miles diameter, have for years produced an average annual value of over 4 millions sterling. The deepest workings are over 800 feet below the surface. The diamonds exported from South Africa, as officially known, have reached 74 millions sterling in value; a considerable unknown addition must be made for stones brought away in personal possession, and for stolen diamonds secretly transmitted. In Little Namaqualand, to the north-west, near the mouth of the Orange River, copper-mines, with ore of very rich quality, are largely worked by two companies, one of which has constructed a narrow-gauge railway of over 90 miles to the shipping-place, Port Nolloth. Coal-fields of immense extent have been recently opened in the Stormberg Mountains, on the north-east. The working is rendered easy by the "lie" of the mineral, needing no shaft, but only a tunnel to follow the seam into the hill-side. The engines on the eastern railway-system are wholly supplied from this source, with a great saving in cost of working. This local supply, in the event of war, would prove of great value to merchant-steamers and our naval marine. Iron, lead, good sandstone for building, millstone, marble, granite, salt, manganese, a beautiful fibrous quartz called crocidolite, largely used for ornamental purposes, china clay, chalcedony, and agates are among the numerous other mineral products.

The chief industries are agricultural and pastoral, with mining in diamonds and copper, and ostrich-breeding. The annual production of wheat, which is of the finest quality, has now reached over 2 millions of bushels; oats, barley, and rye together exceed 3 million bushels; Kaffir corn (millet) averages over 1 million; and "mealies" (maize) approaches 3 millions. A vast amount (over 100,000 tons) of oat-hay is obtained, being largely used, as in Australia, for the feeding of horses and horned cattle. About 4½ million pounds of tobacco are grown. The vines of the western districts yearly yield grapes converted into more than 6 million gallons of wine, 1½ million gallons of brandy, and about 2 million pounds of raisins. Nowhere in the world is the vine more productive than in Cape Colony, nor are any grapes of much higher quality; it seems clear, from good evidence, that the wine produced needs

greater skill and care in the making. In 1896 the farmers possessed about 2¼ million horned cattle, nearly 15 million sheep, nearly 5 million Angora and other goats, and 225,000 ostriches. The work of the colonists is aided by about 388,000 horses, and 95,000 asses and mules. Up to the end of 1895 over 123 millions of acres of land had been disposed of. The larger sheep-farms, mostly the property of the graziers, vary in size from 3000 to 15,000 acres. The Great Karroo is the chief pastoral region for sheep, containing nearly half of the merinos in the colony. The supply of mohair to Great Britain from the 3 millions of Angora goats now generally exceeds in quantity, and nearly equals in quality, that which is derived from Turkey. The goats of other breeds, and the hairy native sheep, furnish large quantities of skins for exportation to tanners. Ostrich-farming, which began about 1864 with the capture of a few wild chicks, was made commercially successful, some years later, by the introduction of artificial incubation. An ostrich-farm, of 13,000 acres, in the Eastern Province, contains 600 birds, fed on grass, karoo (a sort of heather), and succulent bushes, and, in the case of the chicks, on lucerne produced by irrigation. Strong wire fences, five feet in height, surround the whole domain, and many separate camps are therein inclosed in like fashion, a space of 100 acres being assigned to each set of young birds, and allotments of 25 acres to each pair of old birds used for breeding. Larger inclosures, of about 2500 acres, each contain 150 grown and growing ostriches producing the feathers which are plucked for sale. A "Department of Woods and Forests" has control of the Crown reserves of about 250,000 acres of the valuable timber growing on the slopes of the mountain-ranges in the southern and eastern districts. Among other useful kinds, the Amatola forests produce a timber called sneeze-wood, which is capable of resisting the attacks both of the *teredo navalis* (the destructive ship-worm) below water, and of the termites ("white ants", as they are unduly called) on land, whose habitations, from two to four feet in height, are to be seen throughout the country. A "Department of Agriculture" controls schools for instruction, and aims at improvement in the breeds of sheep and horses, in the making of wine, and in the growth and preparation of tobacco, and at devising methods for dealing with cattle-diseases. Manufactures give employment, by the census of 1891, to about 33,000 persons, including the diamond,

copper, and coal miners. Wool-washing, tanning, carpentry in cabinet-work and waggons and carts, brewing, flour-grinding, tobacco-cutting, and, at Cape Town, iron-founding and biscuit-making, are the chief occupations apart from tillage, the care of stock, and mining.

Internal communication is now in a fairly satisfactory and progressive condition. Over 8000 miles of road exist, and solid bridges have been constructed at various points over rivers which formerly were a serious bar to traffic. The Orange River, draining about 400,000 square miles of territory, yearly blocked trade with the interior by its wide-spread floods. This great stream is now spanned, in its course from east to west, at or near Aliwal North, Bathulie, Colesberg, and Hope Town, by bridges from 860 to 1480 feet in length, erected at a total cost exceeding £360,000. The Kei River is crossed by a like construction of utility so plain that our good friends the Fingos, whom we have favourably seen in the history of Cape Colony, freely contributed £1500 towards the cost of the approaches. The Vaal River is traversed, at Barkly West, near Kimberley, by a bridge built by a Company, and the northern highway of commerce is thus kept open at all seasons of the year. The colonial railways now have a total length of about 2500 miles, including nearly 200 miles of private lines and 17 miles of tramway in Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Kimberley. The three main or trunk systems are the Western, Midland, and Eastern, with branches to the more important places lying off the route. The Western Railway, starting from Cape Town, joins the Midland, from Port Elizabeth, at De Aar, 501 miles from Cape Town and 339 from Port Elizabeth. Thence the line runs on to Kimberley, a further distance of 146 miles; to Vryburg in British Bechuanaland, and on to Mafeking, on the borders of the Transvaal State. Express trains, carrying the British and foreign mails, and provided with dining, sleeping, and lavatory accommodation, run through, within a few hours of the arrival of the mail-steamer from England, from Cape Town to Vryburg, 774 miles, in about 40 hours, and from Port Elizabeth, every Monday, to the same point. From Naauwpoort Junction, on the Midland system, a line runs through Colesberg, across the Orange River, to Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange River Colony, and thence, by Johannesburg, beyond the Vaal, to Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal. Branch

lines, on the southern part of the same system, connect Port Elizabeth with Uitenhage, Graaff Reinet, Grahamstown, and Port Alfred. The Eastern railway-system starts from East London, and, with a branch to King William's Town, runs north-west and north, by Molteno, to Aliwal North, 280 miles, on the Orange River; a branch to the west crosses the Orange and joins the Midland system in the south of the Orange River Colony. Mail-carts, coaches, and, in the rougher country, bullock-waggons, afford means of transit between outlying towns and the railway-lines. About 1050 post-offices, and 6400 miles of Government telegraph-lines, give facilities for transmitting news. In connection with business affairs we may note that the coins in use, and the weights and measures, are exclusively British, with the exception of the old Dutch *Morgen* (a little over 2 acres) in land-surveying, and the foot-rule, equal to 1·03 British imperial measure. The chief harbours of the colony have been already noticed. Steam-communication along the coast is well maintained, and the well-known *Union* and *Castle* lines convey passengers and goods, in from 15 to 20 days, over the 6000 miles of sea that divide the colony from the British Isles. The Western cable, by way of Cape Town, and eastern submarine wires, by Natal, Zanzibar, and Aden, connect these South African possessions of the Crown with every part of the civilized world. Another step forward was taken for the purpose of commercial and other communications to and from this part of the Empire when, on January 1st, 1895, Cape Colony, after being for years a solitary exception amongst the great civilized communities of the world, at last joined the Universal Postal Union. By this most important international arrangement, reduced charges and other advantages came into operation on July 1st, 1875, as the results of a treaty concluded at the Postal Congress held at Berne in October, 1874.

We come next to deal with the commerce arising from the industrial occupations of our fellow-subjects in Cape Colony, and carried on by the methods that have just been set forth. The total annual exports of colonial produce exceed 24 millions sterling in value, of which, apart from diamonds (over 4½ millions), nearly £5,100,000 come to the United Kingdom, wool and mohair amounting to nearly 3 millions; copper ore to £400,000; ostrich-feathers, £750,000; and skins and hides to over £1,000,000. The

value of merchandise imported into the colony exceeds £16,000,000, of which about 11½ millions are due to Great Britain in textile fabrics and apparel, representing over 2 millions; wrought and unwrought iron, £1,000,000; machinery and mill-work, £900,000; leather and saddlery, £600,000. Food and drink to the value of nearly 4 millions sterling also comes chiefly from the mother-country.

The executive rule is vested in a Governor, who is by virtue of his office commander-in-chief, with a total salary of £9000, of which one-third accrues to him as "High Commissioner", with a general charge of South African affairs; and in an Executive Council of office-holders named by the Crown. Legislative power resides in a Legislative Council of twenty-two members elected for seven years, with the Chief Justice as President; and in a House of Assembly of seventy-six members, chosen for five years as representatives for towns and country-districts. Both Houses are elected by the same body of about 91,000 registered electors, each of whom must be qualified by occupation of house-property worth £75, or by receipt of annual wages to the amount of £50. All members of Parliament are paid one guinea per day for their services, with an extra allowance of fifteen shillings per day, for not more than 90 days in the year, in case of residence at a distance of over 15 miles from Cape Town. Speeches in Parliament may be made either in English or in Dutch. The Roman-Dutch Law, modified by Colonial statutes, is the basis for the administration of justice, the machinery of which includes a Supreme Court, with a Chief Justice and eight assistant-judges; sessions, circuit-courts in towns and country-districts, and resident magistrates in 77 districts. The Ministry is composed of an unpaid Premier, and a Colonial Secretary, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, and Secretary for Agriculture and Native Affairs, each of whom receives a salary of £1500. Local government is well developed in 69 divisional councils composed of eight members triennially chosen by the parliamentary voters; in about 80 municipalities partly elected annually by the ratepayers; and in 73 village management-boards, each of three members yearly elected by the parliamentary voters within the special area. Roads and other public works, land-boundaries and beacon-lights, licensing and police, thus receive due regard from responsible officials. The total annual revenue is

about 7¼ millions, chiefly derived from loans, railways, customs-duties and other taxation, and colonial estate. The annual expenditure is about £8,400,000, of which the chief items are railways, interest on public debt, police and prisons, public defence, and civil establishment. The public debt is over 28¼ millions, including over 3 millions raised for corporate bodies, harbour boards, &c., guaranteed in the general revenue. This debt is mainly caused by loans, of which about 70 per cent has been expended on directly reproductive public works, including 18¼ millions on railways alone. In religious affairs, the Anglican Church, a very popular communion, is represented by the three dioceses of Cape Town, Grahamstown, and St. John's, Kaffraria, and by about 140,000 adherents. The Dutch Reformed Church, strong among the Boer population, has above 300,000 adherents; the other Protestants, to about the same number, include Lutherans and Moravians (36,000 together), and members of the various chief Nonconformist bodies known in Great Britain, the Wesleyans and Independents forming a large majority. In 1898, there were over 17,000 Catholics, 15,000 Mohammedans, 3000 Jews, and about ¾ million pagans, impolitely described as "of no religion". There is no "Established Church", and the annual small grants made to the Dutch Reformed, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Roman Catholic churches, for "religious worship", are now, under an Act of 1875, being gradually withdrawn. The higher education is represented by the "University of the Cape of Good Hope", established in 1873, with a royal charter of 1877, making the authorities an examining body empowered to grant degrees in Arts, Medicine, and Law. Five colleges, aided by Government-grants, have each a full staff of teachers in classics, mathematics, and physical science. The colony contains about 100 public libraries, with a total number of 320,000 volumes, and 80 newspapers and periodicals are regularly published. A Superintendent-General of Education, with a staff of inspectors, controls elementary instruction, which is not compulsory. The non-compulsory system, in contrast with that prevailing in the great North American and Australasian colonies, has had results which must be held to be discreditable. In 1891, of the European population, nearly 29 per cent of the males, and 28 per cent of the females, could neither read nor write. Of 100,000 European children

between 5 and 14 years of age, about 60,000 were under instruc tion, but one-third were being taught at home or only in Sunday-schools. Of 316,000 native or non-European children of the same ages, 34,000 were in Government-aided schools, and a few thousands more had private, home, or Sunday-school teaching only.

As regards defence against external foes, the whole of the Cape Peninsula, including the great naval station at Simon's Bay, is guarded by a series of batteries and forts, and an imperial garrison is maintained at Cape Town and Wynberg. The colony is now left to defend itself against native foes, trouble from that quarter being a highly improbable contingency. The Cape Mounted Rifles number over 1000 officers and men; the Cape Police now consists of 68 officers and about 2000 men, with over 1570 horses. The volunteer-corps, of all arms, including garrison and field artillery, muster about 7000 officers and men, and a law of 1878 renders every able-bodied man in the colony, between the ages of 18 and 50 years, liable to military service beyond as well as within the colonial limits. The neighbouring seas are patrolled by the ships of the Cape and West African squadron.

The chief towns are *Cape Town*, population (1891) over 51,000, and nearly 84,000 with suburbs; *Kimberley*, nearly 29,000; *Port Elizabeth*, 23,260; *Grahamstown*, 10,500; *King William's Town*, 7220; and *East London*, 7000. The view of the capital, lying between Table Bay and the northern base of the steep and massive flat-topped Table Mountain, about 3500 feet in height, is very grand on approach by sea. The reverse prospect, when the traveller ascends behind the town, and gazes over gardens, villas, and vineyards, joining plantations of pines and silver trees that cover the mountain-foot, to the waters of the bay, is suggestive of the Bay of Naples. The old Dutch town has flat-roofed, oblong, white-washed houses, arranged in streets that cross each other at right angles. The finest buildings are the Parliament Houses, opened in 1885, at a cost of £220,000. Public convenience and comfort are provided for by spacious markets, gas-lit thoroughfares, tram-cars, cabs, omnibuses, and by the beautiful Government-gardens in the heart of the town, with an oak avenue stretching for three-quarters of a mile. The breakwater, docks, and graving-dock have cost about 2 millions sterling. The coast and neighbouring inland scenery is very charming in its succession of fair hamlets and

marine villas lying amidst vineyards, orchards, and woods. A large part of the population is composed of negroes, Malays, and South African natives, employed in various handicrafts and as gardeners, grooms, coachmen, and carters. No town in South Africa has had so rapid and remarkable a rise as *Kimberley*, the diamond-centre in Griqualand West. About a quarter of a century ago the ground which it covers was a desert. The "rush" for diamonds created a collection of tents and huts. The traveller now sees a city of 30,000 people, with handsome public buildings, botanic gardens, a hospital with 360 beds, specially useful to the many sufferers from accidents in the mines, and waterworks constructed at a cost of nearly half a million sterling, bringing a supply from the Vaal River, 17 miles distant. Society is well ordered, and excellent arrangements exist for the well-being of the thousands of native workmen, particularly as regards the detestable and destructive traffic in the worst kind of alcoholic compounds. The neighbouring town of *Beaconsfield*, also in the diamond-district, has a population exceeding 10,000. *Port Elizabeth*, on Algoa Bay, is called the "Liverpool of South Africa", a title not absurdly bestowed on a town of fine public buildings, including a library of 20,000 volumes, and possessing, as the chief port of the eastern districts of Cape Colony and of the Orange River Colony, a commerce in which the yearly imports exceed 4 millions in value, and the exports amount to about 2 millions. *Grahamstown*, beautifully placed at 1800 feet above sea-level, is in a district that enjoys the advantage of a genial climate, with an equable temperature and a rainfall fairly distributed throughout the year. The soil is fruitful, living is cheap, and easy access is afforded by rail to the sea-coast thirty miles away, to the dry inland plains, and to the bracing air of mountain-regions. Its ecclesiastical and educational resources, with the intellectual and social activities of an English cathedral town, have caused it to be described as the "Winchester of South Africa". A notable and beneficial custom of the place is the annual "tree planting", when every child plants a young *Pinus insignis*, a noble species native to the west of North America.

We proceed to a brief account of some other territories under British rule, influence, or control in the south, the centre, and the east of Africa. *Basutoland*, a territory with an area of about 10,300 sq. miles, nearly the size of Belgium, is surrounded by the

Orange River Colony, Cape Colony, and Natal. In the second decade of the nineteenth century a young, vigorous, and able chieftain named Moshesh acquired power, which he wielded for about 50 years. After a war with Cape Colony in 1852, and defeat by Sir George Cathcart, submission was made, and then Moshesh became involved in lengthy hostilities with the Orange Free State and with the Boers of the Transvaal. In 1868, when the Basutos were hard pressed by the Boers, and by danger of famine, a second appeal for British rule was successful, and the land was annexed to Cape Colony in 1871. Eight years later, a rebellion against our rule began under the leadership of a chief named Moirosi, but in December, 1879, his stronghold was stormed with the loss of his life in the assault. Further trouble arose from British proposals to allot territory to European settlers, and from an Act which aimed at a general disarmament. Indecisive warfare occurred, and the Basutos were, in 1881, driven to submission by the loss of cattle and interruption to tillage. At last, in 1884, the country was separated from Cape Colony, and came, as it remains, under imperial rule through a Resident Commissioner directed by the High Commissioner for South Africa, whose proclamations have legislative force. The chiefs decide on matters at issue between natives; a right of appeal to British magistrates controls cases in which Europeans are involved. The native population may number 250,000; European settlement is not permitted, and the few hundreds of Europeans found in the country are engaged as traders, or as missionaries, or in the work of government. The missionaries, almost the sole educators, have schools containing 7000 pupils, of whom nine-tenths are in charge of the French Protestant Mission. It is pleasant to be able to record a steady improvement in the observance of law and order, along with the non-existence, in the whole country, of a single canteen or "drinking-shop". The missionaries, the British Government, and the leading chiefs have united in producing this excellent result of war waged against the alcohol which was threatening to exterminate the people. Good roads favour transport by ox-waggons and light carts, and there is a weekly postal mail-service for letters, parcels, and money-orders, reaching Cape Town in about 6 days. A telegraph-office at Maseru, the capital (850 people), communicating with the Cape Colony system, was opened in July, 1892. The

revenue of £46,000 a-year arises from the Cape contribution of £18,000, the post-office, a tax on native huts (10*s.* per annum) and the sale of licences. The well-watered territory, with a fine climate, fertile soil, and grand and beautiful scenery among mountains connected with the Drakenberg chain, is richly stocked with horses and horned cattle, sheep, goats (including Angora), and pigs. The tillage, chiefly in wheat, mealies (maize), and Kaffir corn (millet), is extending so as to drive the pastoral farming more and more into the higher grounds of the broken and rugged plateau that forms Basutoland. Two coal-mines are worked for a local supply of fuel. Grain, cattle, and wool are the chief exports, imported goods being mainly blankets, ploughs, clothing, saddlery, groceries, and ware of tin and iron. British coin is current, but trade by barter still largely exists. In 1891, the country entered the Customs Union existing between Cape Colony and Orange Free State.

British Bechuanaland consisted, until 1896, of a Crown Colony and a Protectorate. The colony was bounded by the South African Republic on the east, by Cape Colony on the south, by the 20th meridian of east longitude (the eastern border of Namaqualand) on the west, and by the Molopo River on the north, with an area variously stated at 51,000 and 71,000 sq. miles. The Protectorate extends northwards over the Kalahari Desert to the line of 22° south latitude, and westwards to 21° east longitude. The whole area is given as 386,000 square miles with a population of about 60,000, including over 5000 Europeans. The events which led to our acquisition of this territory may be briefly told. Prior to 1884 two reigning chiefs were engaged in warfare with rivals who were supported by Boers of the Transvaal. The legitimate rulers were vanquished in the contest, and then the South African Republic officially intervened and made a "peace and settlement" which included the confiscation of most of the land belonging to one of the defeated chieftains. The British Government had already decided on a protectorate of Bechuanaland, in favour of the two chiefs, and Mr. Cecil Rhodes, Deputy-Commissioner from Cape Town, promptly set aside the Boer arrangement. The President of the Transvaal thereupon proclaimed the "protection" of his state for the lawful rulers who had been ousted from power. The Convention of London, concluded in February, 1884, required

the Queen's assent to such a step, and our Government caused the Boers to annul the proceeding. All was now anarchy in Bechuanaland, and the first necessary step was British mastery and enforced pacification. Sir Charles Warren, as special Commissioner, went thither at the head of 4000 men of all arms, including 2000 irregular cavalry. Not a blow was struck in the way of resistance, and Sir Charles remained in military occupation until August, 1885, when he quitted the country after the complete restoration of peace and order, the execution of useful public works, the demarcation of borders, and the conclusion of treaties with various powerful chiefs to the north. In September, the Crown colony was annexed, and the protectorate proclaimed, under the rule of the Governor of Cape Colony, represented on the spot by an official who is at once "Administrator, Deputy High Commissioner, and Chief Magistrate". British colonial history has no finer instance of successful vigour than this peaceful acquisition of a magnificent territory. An expert in South African affairs, Mr. John Mackenzie, long a missionary in Bechuanaland, and Deputy-Commissioner prior to Mr. Rhodes, declared that we had gained "a region which any colonizing power might covet; which is necessary to our supremacy in South Africa, and to the welfare and future confederation of our colonists", and that "the Bechuanaland expedition had helped our South African colonists to believe in the British Government once more".

In November, 1895, the Crown Colony was annexed to Cape Colony, and new arrangements were made for the administration of the Protectorate, in which the chief tribe is the Bamangwato, under the excellent chief named Khama, who visited England in 1895. The natives pay a hut-tax collected by the chiefs. The sale of spirits is prohibited. Order is maintained by a force of native mounted police.

The country forms part of a plateau from 4000 to 5000 feet above sea-level, with a dry and very healthy climate. An annual rainfall of about 25 inches occurs between November and April; good water for drinking and irrigation can always be obtained by digging on or near the river-banks, or by sinking wells. Extensive woods are found in the north-east. A very fertile soil gives sustenance to vast numbers of antelopes, and tillage produces good crops of mealies (maize), vegetables, and Kaffir corn. Wild indigo

furnishes a dye of rare excellence, and cotton is one of the indigenous shrubs. The minerals include lead, tin, silver, gold, iron, and coal. The natives, whose chief occupations are cattle-rearing and the growing of corn and tobacco, are a fine, hardy, well-formed race of people, more advanced in civilization than others in South Africa, and attentive, with good results for peace and social order, to the teaching of earnest men supported by the Anglican Church, the Wesleyans, and the London Missionary Society. Communications are fairly maintained by roads, by the extension of the railway from Kimberley to Vryburg and then northwards to Mafeking, and by telegraph-wires which have now reached Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland. Vryburg is now within two days of Cape Town, a fact which speaks volumes for the rapidity of progress in South Africa during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. From the seat of government there are daily coaches to Johannesburg, in the Transvaal, in connection with the train-service from the south. The trade of Bechuanaland lies in the import of needful manufactured goods, and the export of maize, wool, hides, cattle, and wood to Kimberley and other markets. Mafeking is the centre of traffic with the interior, favoured by the connection of the colony, since 1891, with the South African Customs Union. The defence of the country is in the hands of the Bechuanaland Border Police, a well-trained force of 450 men recruited chiefly from the young farmers of the east of Cape Colony, of versatile powers which enable them to construct their own little forts, to build their barracks, to sink wells and make roads, to act as thorough cavalrymen, to dismount and do good service on foot, and to load and fire the six field-guns which compose the artillery of this new and rising state.

British South and Central Africa, or *British Zambesia and Nyassaland* was till recently the name of a vast region, estimated to have an area of half a million square miles, lying south and north of the great river Zambesi. To the south, the territory comprised Mashonaland and Matabeleland. Northwards, the territory extends to the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, and the western shore of Lake Nyassa, including the district known as the Shiré highlands. Until recent years, the region was only known, among Europeans, to adventurous sportsmen in search of big game and to the devoted missionaries and explorers Moffat

and Livingstone. The first British trading connection with this part of Africa arose in 1878, when a company of Scottish merchants was formed, under the name of "The Livingstone Central Africa Company", for the purpose of opening up to navigation and trade the rivers and lakes of Central Africa to which the Zambesi is the approach. In the course of ten years, the operations of the "African Lakes Company", as it was commonly styled, and private enterprise, had established stations on the Shiré and on the western shores of Lake Nyassa, and a highroad had been formed between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika. Some planting of coffee, sugar, and cinchona was begun, a small amount of trade was carried on, and the Company's boats rendered service in carrying missionaries and their stores to the stations in Nyassaland. The European "rush" for the partition of Africa brought into the field a new Company possessed of greater resources and formed with more ambitious aims. In October, 1889, a royal charter was granted to the "British South Africa Company", a body of associates whose capital, nearly all derived from cash-subscriptions, amounted to one million sterling. The president and vice-president were the Dukes of Abercorn and Fife, and the Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes, Premier of Cape Colony, took the post of managing-director. Very extensive powers were granted for the encouragement of colonization, the promotion of trade, and the development and working of mineral and other resources, all subject to the approval of the Colonial Secretary. It is well to note that the charter requires the Company to use all legitimate means for the discouragement and gradual abolition of the slave-trade and domestic servitude, and to prevent, so far as possible, the sale of any alcoholic liquors to natives. No official interference with any native religion was permitted, "except so far as may be necessary in the interests of humanity"; all forms of religious worship were to be allowed, and careful regard was to be paid, in the administration of justice, to native customs and laws. The administrative rights of this powerful Company included the making and maintenance of roads, railways, telegraphs, harbours, and any other needful works; the making concessions for mining, timber-cutting, and other industries; the clearing, planting, irrigation, and cultivation of lands; the granting of lands for terms of years or in perpetuity, and either absolutely or by way of mortgage or otherwise. Accounts of the financial condition of the

Company, of its public proceedings, and of the condition of its territories, were to be furnished yearly to the Secretary of State.

Thus commissioned and armed, the South African Company proceeded to take possession of its territories. Lobengula, the king of Matabeleland, had made a treaty, in 1888, with Sir Hercules Robinson, Governor of Cape Colony, and High Commissioner for South Africa, in which British influence, as regarded his country, was secured against all native and European rivals. This powerful chieftain ruled a section of the Zulus who, about 1840, had migrated towards the north, and had, at the period with which we are dealing, become an independent nation of 200,000 persons, retaining the warlike habits of their race, with an army of 15,000 warriors, commanded by *indunas* or chiefs, and distributed by *impis*, or regiments, in military kraals. The social system included no regular industries for the men. The women grew maize and millet; the king held large herds of cattle in trust for the fighting-men and their dependants. The warriors made raids, from time to time, upon their weaker neighbours in Mashonaland and elsewhere, slaying the men, and returning with booty that included women and children for incorporation in their own community. Nominally despotic, Lobengula was not always able to restrain his *indunas* and their men, who were eager to "wash their spears" in blood, and to "eat up" all the white men in or near their own territory. For a time, however, all collision was avoided, and the northward march of the Company's pioneering column was safely made through Matabeleland. This expedition was a memorable event in the history of the expansion of British rule. A police-force of 500 men and a band of 200 pioneers, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Pennefather, and guided by Mr. F. C. Selous, the famous hunter, who knew the country well, started in June, 1890, from the Macloutsie River, a tributary of the Limpopo, and made their way, north-east and north, over the gradually rising plateau to Mount Hampden in Mashonaland. Over these 400 miles of ground a rough road was made during the advance, with bridges over rivers and platforms crossing marshy ground, forts, with small garrisons, being established at three points of the line. A fourth and last stronghold, named Fort Salisbury, was built near Mount Hampden, and a town soon arose with hotels, hospitals, churches, lawyers, land-agents, stores, clubs, newspapers, a sanitary board, and other

appliances of civilization. In September, 1890, the pioneers were disbanded, and, in accordance with the terms of service, were allowed to peg off claims in the rich gold-bearing quartz districts of Mashonaland. After much suffering and many deaths during the exceptionally severe rainy season of 1890–91, the new-comers began to prosper, and in September, 1891, only twelve months after the first occupation, there were six gold-fields open, with above 11,000 mining-claims allotted. Silver, copper, tin, antimony, arsenic, lead, coal, and plumbago have also been found. Farmers from Cape Colony and the Transvaal have taken up an area of 2 million acres of land in this favoured country, Mashonaland, a plateau from 4000 to 4600 feet above sea-level, well watered by streams, with a rich soil, and a strong and bracing air. The natives, of Bantu race, are peaceful and industrious, devoted to cattle-rearing and to tillage which produces rice, Kaffir corn, maize, sweet-potatoes, tobacco, and cotton. From the spun cotton they weave blankets, and they have no mean skill in working iron.

It was in 1891 that the British Government extended the field of the Company's operations to the north of the Zambesi. The Nyassaland districts, however, form a "Protectorate" proclaimed in 1891 as the British Central Africa Protectorate, and administered under the Foreign Office by a "Commissioner and Consul-General", the cost of rule in "Northern Zambesia" being partly borne by the British South African Company. The Anglo-Portuguese agreement of June, 1891, and arrangements made with Germany, added about 350,000 square miles to our territory, officially styled "British Central Africa", in one of the best-watered and most promising parts of the great continent. At the end of 1892, the African Lakes Company was incorporated with the British South African Company. The new territory is being well organized for the development of British power and civilization. The seat of government is at Zomba; the largest town is Blantyre, in the Shiré highlands, with about one hundred Europeans and 6000 natives. On Lake Nyassa lie Fort Johnston, named after the able and energetic British ruler, Fort Maguire, and Livingstonia, and other settlements have been made near Lake Tanganyika, on Lake Moero, and on the Upper Luapula River near Lake Bangweolo. The Shiré province, between the southern shore of Lake Nyassa and the Zambesi, is the chief scene of European

effort, divided into eight districts, provided with custom-houses, post-offices, and good roads, and rendered safe for property and life. The chief exports are ivory, india-rubber, oil-seeds, bees'-wax, rice, coffee, hippopotamus-teeth, and rhinoceros-horns. For the maintenance of order and for checking the slave-trade there is a body of 200 Sikhs from the Indian army, with mountain-guns, aided by about 500 black police. The Zambesi and Shiré rivers and Lake Nyassa are patrolled by five gun-boats, with as many naval stations between Chinde, on the only navigable mouth of the Zambesi, and Fort Maguire, at the southern end of Lake Nyassa. River-boats of the Central African Administration, and of two steam-traffic companies, meet the ocean-going steamers at Chinde, taking down exported goods, and loading in return with cotton-fabrics, machinery, provisions, hardware, and agricultural tools, to the value in one year of £83,000.

In 1895–6–7 important events occurred in this Central Africa Protectorate, which, with its "sphere of influence", includes all the region surrounded by the Portuguese and German possessions, the Congo Free State, and Rhodesia, the Protectorate itself being a narrow strip of country along the Shiré river and the western shore of Lake Nyassa, now made a model territory of its class under the very able rule of Sir Harry Johnston. It is described by him, in a recent work, as a country rejoicing in the possession of plateaux with a cool and bracing air, where the sunshine from a lovely pale blue sky is only pleasantly warm, where fatigue is not felt, and thirst can be quenched from countless ice-cold brooks; with beautiful bamboo glades, and a vast natural aviary, with an infinite variety of life and colour, on the estuary of a river falling into Lake Tanganyika. The drawbacks are the malaria in certain districts, and a troublesome south-east wind at certain seasons. In seven years of splendid work, from 1890 to 1897, Sir Harry Johnston provided the country with the machinery of civilization, including a civil service and military establishment, law-courts, post-offices, four hundred miles of roads, and seventeen steamers on the Zambesi and Shiré rivers. In the five years from 1891 to 1896 the trade of the country increased about threefold, and the number of settlers nearly sixfold. Above all, the curse of slavery had been for ever wiped out of British Central Africa. In December, 1895, the slave-raiding chief Mlozi, of North Nyassa, was subdued in a

brilliant campaign. On December 1st, after a toilsome and difficult march, and the capture of some outlying stockades, his stronghold, a walled town half a square mile in area, near the river Rukuru, was completely invested by the British force. The thick mud-walls, strongly wattled, with stout beams supporting a thick flat mud-roof along the ramparts, and loopholed for the defenders' fire, was severely bombarded after many women and children had been allowed to come forth and pass the outposts. The central part of the town was soon on fire, and the besieged suffered great loss, but the mud ramparts and roofs seemed little the worse for shelling. Mlozi's marksmen made good practice with Remington rifles, but much of the fire from the walls was high and inaccurate. As night came on, with moonlight, the ring of besiegers was tightened up and the Nordenfeldt gun was brought opposite to the big gate in readiness to prevent sorties for escape made by the Arabs, who knew that they were caught in a trap. The fight continued through the night, and some shells exploded quantities of gunpowder in some of Mlozi's magazines. In early morning a white flag waving from the ramparts caused the "cease-fire" to sound, and at last Mlozi came forth from the main gate and asked for terms, which were announced to be immediate surrender of the place and the arms, with sparing of life on that condition. The chief retired within the town, and returned to request the Commissioner to walk unarmed into the stockade for the discussion of terms. Before a reply could be made to this ludicrous proposal, he stated that the Arabs meant to fight it out to the end, and "if the British wanted them they must come and take them". The flags of truce were then pulled down, and the bombardment was resumed at noon on December 3rd. No breach, however, was effected in the walls, and preparations were being made for an assault on the main gate, when a chief who had escaped from the town came into camp and pointed out to the Commissioner the position of the strong building in which Mlozi and his fighting-men were taking shelter. Three shells from the nine-pounder gun were promptly dropped into the place, and then the assailants were surprised by an immediate sortie in great force from two parts of the stockade. The rush was accompanied by sharp volleys, doing some damage to the British, and a great number of women and children ran for safety to the nearest British camp. The besiegers closed up to a hand-to-hand

conflict with the enemy, doing great execution by regular volleys, and then two officers, with thirty Sikhs, clambered up on the ramparts, and leapt down into the stockade. The ramparts were scaled in other parts, and the Commissioner, with some officers, rushed up to the main gateway, which was quickly breached by a gun brought up close. When the town was entered, the native allies of the British began to drive out all the cattle, while close fighting went on inside the place. Mlozi, who had been wounded by one of the three shells which caused the sortie, had taken refuge in a house, the roof of which was fired after a refusal to surrender. The people rushed out and were shot down by the Sikhs, and then the chief was captured in a hiding-place inside, and brought into camp. Very few of his fighting-men survived, numbers being pursued and killed by our native allies. Nearly six hundred miserable slaves were rescued. The whole British loss was very small. On December 4th, Mlozi, after trial by a council of native chiefs, presided over by the Commissioner, was condemned and hanged. In the course of the campaign, nearly 1200 slaves were rescued and set free, with provision made for their future living.

This sharp lesson to slave-raiders was repeated in 1896. In January, the Protectorate forces gained two brilliant victories over the slave-trading chiefs on the western shores of Lake Nyassa, and once for all broke the power of the slave-system in that region. A powerful chief, of Zulu origin, named Mwasi, having formed a confederacy against the British, closed the important trade-route from Lake Nyassa to the Luapula River and the Congo, and began raiding for slaves far into a district within the administration of the Protectorate. An expedition composed of 150 regular troops, Sikhs and negroes, and about five thousand native allies, was sent against Mwasi, who put twenty thousand fighting-men into the field. In three sharp encounters this great force was utterly beaten; all his fortified places were taken, and fifty of his settlements were destroyed, with trifling loss to the Protectorate force. Over six hundred prisoners, including fourteen chiefs, were taken, and one of these was tried and executed for the treacherous murder of two British subjects, Dr. Boyce and Mr. McEwan, in 1891. Some hundreds of cattle, nearly six hundred rifles or muskets, and a quantity of gunpowder were also taken. A British fort replaced Mwasi's town, and, as a result of the operations, the trade-route

into the far interior westward and north-westward of Lake Nyassa was opened, and the slave-route to the Zambesi was closed. Shortly afterwards, two other slave-trading strongholds, the last remaining in the British Protectorate, were captured, after the complete defeat of the chiefs' forces, and a British fort was built on the site of the principal village.

In October, 1896, a serious attack was made on the south-west of the Protectorate by a tribe called the Angoni Zulus, who had been aroused by news of the Matabele war. Some uneasiness was felt at Blantyre, and three columns of troops were despatched against the invaders. These Zulus, under a chief named Chikusi, were related to the Matabele south of the Zambesi, and refugees from Matabeleland had spread reports that the British were getting the worst of the struggle. Chikusi had suffered much loss of revenue from the stoppage of his slave-raids by the erection of forts in the upper Shiré district, and this stirred his enmity against the British. On October 8th six hundred of his warriors attacked the Zambesi industrial mission station, burning villages and slaying people attached to the mission. After this, villages on the upper Shiré were raided by Chikusi, and more people were massacred. The three columns of Sikhs and native troops converged on Chikusi's country, and a battle was fought, with 350 men, including about 100 Sikhs, against several thousand Angoni warriors, headed by the chief. A steady fire of twenty minutes broke the enemy, and Chikusi, taken on the field, was promptly tried, condemned and hanged. Another column encountered a powerful Angoni chief, and, though the British force numbered only 30 Sikhs and 40 native soldiers, his strong stone fort, on the slopes of a mountain, was taken by surprise, with great loss to the enemy, the chief being captured and sent as a prisoner to one of the British forts. This was the end of trouble from the Angoni Zulus.

Among recent events in Southern Africa to affect British interests have been wars with the Matabele. Their renewed raids on the Mashonas under the protection of the Company brought a conflict in October, 1893, between the *impis*, or native regiments, whom it is believed that Lobengula in vain endeavoured to restrain, and the Company's forces, aided by the Bechuanaland Border Police, Khama's men, and volunteers. Breech-loaders and Gatling guns were too powerful for spears, and, after a difficult march and

several battles, the defeat of Lobengula's forces was followed by his death. In November his capital, Bulawayo, was occupied, and early in 1894 Matabeleland was annexed to the British Empire.

In the last days of March, 1896, a formidable rebellion occurred in the newly-conquered territory which, with Mashonaland, makes up the region popularly known as "Rhodesia", as large as Spain, France, and Italy together. Matabeleland had been placed under a regular administration, with magisterial districts, and was guarded by armed police, distributed at various stations all through the territory. The rising of the natives was intimately connected, as regards the time of its occurrence, with the "Jameson Raid". At the end of 1895, as we have seen, the larger part of the Matabeleland Mounted Police had been taken away to assist in that disastrous enterprise, and it was this depletion of the force which gave their opportunity to the Matabele. The natives had only been very partially subdued in 1893, and they had a rankling memory of what they did not by any means at first regard as conquest, but only as "a passing raid". Before three years had elapsed, however, they found that the British had come as permanent occupiers and settlers, and that Bulawayo was fast becoming a European town. There were already four thousand whites in the country, and the state of peace and order which existed was a sore grievance to tribes of freebooters who had been wont to live by harassing their neighbours, especially those in Mashonaland, in cattle-forays and other modes of plunder. Their supplies of food had been reduced by drought and by swarms of locusts, and especially by the rinderpest, or cattle-plague, which had made its way into the territory, in the course of three years, from Somaliland, two thousand miles away to the north-east. The Matabele herds had been ravaged by the pestilence, and then, to their amazement and disgust, the British authorities, in order to stay the progress of the scourge, began to slaughter cattle in all directions. The idea rapidly spread among the natives that the intention of their conquerors was to annihilate them by starvation, and with death, as they believed, staring them in the face, the Matabele warriors formed a bold and comprehensive plan for the extinction of all the whites. All the fighting-men were called upon to assemble in arms, on a certain "moon", around Bulawayo. The town was then to be "rushed" in the night, and the white people slaughtered

without quarter to any. The town was not to be destroyed, but kept as the royal "kraal" for Lobengula, who had, it was asserted, come to life again. After the slaughter at Bulawayo the army was to break up into smaller *impis*, and go about slaying all outlying farmers. The superstitious minds of the natives were tempted by the declaration that the white men's bullets would, in their flight, be turned into water, and the shells into eggs. This plan of warfare failed only because the Matabele, in their haste for vengeance, began at the wrong end. The outlying settlers and prospectors for gold were attacked before the night-surprise of Bulawayo. The people of the town were thus warned in time, and enabled to prepare the place for defence.

The position of affairs soon became serious. Before the middle of April, with the slaughter of scores of outlying settlers, the whole country, outside the towns and forts, was in the hands of the rebels, who had a specially strong position in the Matoppo Hills, a range running for one hundred and fifty miles to the north-east from Bulawayo. Hundreds of cavalry and mounted infantry hurried to the scene of conflict from Natal and Cape Town, and volunteers, with infantry from England, soon made up a force of about five thousand men, under the chief command of General Sir Frederick Carrington, a man of great personal influence in South Africa, well acquainted with most of the men whom he was to lead, and with a thorough experience of Matabeleland and of native warfare. The rebels were aided by many of the native police, and were to a great extent armed with excellent rifles. The campaign, one of several months' duration, included much hard fighting of small columns against large native forces, but the chief scenes of action were at Bulawayo and the Matoppo Hills. The town had been well provisioned and fortified, with strong outposts, and with a train of dynamite, ready to be fired by electricity, laid around the outskirts, and along the side-streets, the mines being at all points connected with the central "laager", and capable of being separately exploded. In the last half of April sorties were made from Bulawayo, and the enemy were attacked with success in several positions, but they could not be brought to a general action, and before the end of the month many thousands of the rebels were gathered within two or three miles of the town. Maxim and Hotchkiss guns did good service on April 25th in a hot fight

of three hours against three thousand Matabele in the bush outside, on the Umguza river four miles to the north. At least five hundred Matabele were left dead on the ground, after a series of British charges to close quarters. During May there were many minor actions at various parts of the country, and several kraals of the rebels were captured and burned. Attacks on the British position in and near Bulawayo were often repulsed, and the enemy would never face the charges of the troopers. On June 1st Mr. Rhodes arrived at Bulawayo with a column of troops from Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland, and on June 6th the enemy were again routed a few miles from the town. Hot work continued in many quarters, the rebels being favoured by the great extent of country, and by the difficulty of getting at them in the bush and the rocky hills. Sir Frederick Carrington formed three columns at Bulawayo for the purpose of marching north, north-east, and north-west, as part of a general plan for dispersing and disarming the foe, but before the end of June the rising had extended into Mashonaland, and it was seen that more force was needed to cope with the rebellion. The imperial troops were by this time coming to the front, and Fort Salisbury, long beleaguered, was relieved by a cavalry-force escorting needful stores of arms and ammunition. Early in July, an almost impregnable position, near Inyati, north-east of Bulawayo, was gallantly stormed, with severe loss to the rebels, and the capture of many women and children, with large numbers of cattle, sheep, and goats.

On August 5th, a strong position in the Matoppo Hills, held by five rebel *impis* or regiments, was captured after fighting which lasted from eight in the morning until three in the afternoon, with more than a dozen British officers, commissioned and non-commissioned, and many men, killed and wounded. The Matabele lost some hundreds of men, and a serious impression was made on them by this defeat. About the middle of the month, Mr. Rhodes, trusting to a messenger from some rebel chiefs, rode boldly out, unarmed, with but five attendants, from Bulawayo, to a point in the Matoppo Hills, thirty miles from the town. There, surrounded by hundreds of armed Matabele, he held a conference with six principal chiefs, two of Lobengula's brothers, and over thirty *indunas* and captains of the *impis*. This trustful and courageous conduct was of great service to the cause of peace.

The "Indaba" or parley continued for five hours, and then the chiefs consented to surrender all guns and assegais, to put an end to hostilities, and to guarantee safety to the roads and the coaches. After further negotiations, Earl Grey, the Chartered Company's Administrator, was able to dispatch a cablegram on August 22nd, stating the conclusion of the war on terms practically amounting to unconditional surrender on the part of the Matabele. The whole struggle was over throughout Rhodesia before the end of the year, with not the least likelihood of any future trouble. The natives, in danger of starvation from the loss of cattle and of their stores of grain at captured kraals, had been promptly supplied with food and seed-corn by the Company.

After the conclusion of the troubles, very rapid progress was made in Matabeleland. The railway from Capetown, through Bechuanaland, to Mafeking, was quickly extended across Khama's country, and at the beginning of November, 1897, the whistle of the locomotive was first heard at Bulawayo, standing on a plateau about 4,500 feet above sea-level, in one of the most pleasant and salubrious climates in the world. The place had become a considerable town, with streets and avenues extending for twenty miles of total length, laid out at right angles to each other, the chief parallel thoroughfares, called Main-street, Abercorn-street, Fife-street, and Rhodes-street, with others, being each about a hundred feet wide. In the centre of the town is a large market-square, and the chief buildings include the High Court of Matabeleland, the Resident Magistrate's Court, the armoury and stores of the British South Africa Police, a Stock Exchange, Postal and Telegraph Offices, offices for the Administrator and the Civil Service, and the Bulawayo Club-house. Blocks of substantial edifices have replaced the temporary erections of corrugated iron, and the wants of civilization are met by several daily newspapers, a score or two of solicitors and barristers; banks, breweries, auctioneers, "stores" of every class, a brick-field turning out a million bricks weekly, a lending library, restaurants, hotels, a theatre, and places of worship representing the Church of England, the Dutch Protestant Church, the Wesleyans, and the Jews. Prospectors and mine-managers were hard at work in preparations for the development of the gold-industry when, on November 4th, 1897, the railway was opened, amidst great rejoicings, by Sir

Alfred Milner, the High Commissioner, in presence of the Governor of Natal and other leading officials of South Africa, and of chiefs and *indunas* from all parts of the vast territory. Bulawayo was thus brought within three days' journey from Cape Town, and three weeks' reach of London, and the magnificent country was fairly started on what should be a prosperous career. The defence of the territory of Rhodesia (Matabeleland and Mashonaland) is intrusted to 1200 well-armed and well-disciplined police, with regular patrolling in all parts occupied by settlers, and with forts and small garrisons in different districts. All these armed posts, in touch with the white population, and keeping a close watch on all native movements, are in telephonic or telegraphic communication with Bulawayo, and are so placed as practically to surround the town. In the Matoppo Hills, a chain of forts runs from north-east to south-west, and the mining-districts are specially guarded. A standing force of over 200 men is maintained at Bulawayo, with a mule-battery of machine-guns, and 2000 Martini-Henry rifles for the purpose of arming, in case of need, the white civil population of the town. At the farewell banquet of the railway-festivities on November 10th, 1897, the Governor of Natal, Sir W. Hely Hutchinson, a pupil of Lord Rosmead in colonial government, and a man of great experience as colonial official and ruler in New South Wales, Barbados, Malta, and the Windward Islands, made a speech in which he declared that "the brain of Africa is white, the sinew is black. 'Labour' is the cry, and to the teeming thousands of natives we must look for the development of our resources. It behoves us to use the power we possess with kindly firmness and sympathetic interest."

British East Africa was until recently the name of a vast vague territory, which, with "the sphere of influence" thereto attached, was estimated to have an area of a million square miles. This region, bounded on the north by the Galla country, and on the south by German East Africa (westwards from Zanzibar), extended from the Somali country and the Indian Ocean on the east to the Congo Free State on the west, thus passing to the north of Lake Victoria Nyanza and beyond the Upper Nile, so as to include the territory called Uganda. Through concessions made by the Sultan of Zanzibar and agreements with the Italian and German Governments, the territory was placed under the immediate ad-

ministration of the Imperial British East Africa Company, whose charter was signed in September, 1888, with rights of coinage under which their silver and copper became largely used. From the initial letters of the Company's title their territory was often styled *Ibea*. A coast-line of about 700 miles, including the ports of Kismayu, Lamu, and Mombasa, gives a fine outlet for trade, conducted by caravans and by steamers on the Juba and Tana rivers, with exports consisting of ivory, sesame-seed, india-rubber, maize, rice, millet, copra, gum, coir, and hides, and imports of Manchester and Bombay cotton-cloth, iron and copper wire, beads, &c. *Mombasa*, the seat of government, has a natural harbour equal to any on the African coast of the Indian Ocean, capable of admitting the largest steamers, and furnished with landing-stages, piers, and other works that have created a very important coaling-station for the use of the British Navy in those waters. Mombasa is now connected by a good road with Kibwezi, about 200 miles inland, where the Scottish East African Mission is actively engaged in the religious and industrial training of the natives. A submarine-cable links the chief coast-ports with Zanzibar, and the country has been surveyed for a line of railway from Mombasa to Lake Victoria Nyanza, a distance of about 400 miles. *Lamu*, for some years the seat of a flourishing commerce chiefly conducted by the Queen's British Indian subjects, is a port of call for the mail-steamers of the British India Company's fleet. The Company, in March, 1893, retired from the occupation of Uganda. In July, 1893, the administration of the territory between the Tana and Juba rivers was transferred by the Company to the Sultan of Zanzibar. This fact, however, is of the less importance in that Zanzibar is now a kind of British Protectorate, wherein the state-accounts, kept in English and Arabic, are always open to the inspection of the British Consul-General, whose consent is required for all new undertakings and expenditure. The town of Zanzibar, on an island with an area of 625 square miles, has a population of about 30,000, including a few score Europeans, and 7000 British Indian subjects. The island of Pemba has an area of 360 square miles, and the two islands have a population of about 200,000. The commerce, with the usual exports of that region, has a total annual value of 2½ millions. The British Consular Court has jurisdiction in all cases concerning British subjects, and also in matters affecting the slave-trade and

naval prize. The police, and an army of 1000 men, are commanded by a British officer. Early in 1895, the British East Africa Company, in exchange for the sum of £250,000, surrendered their charter and concession, and became extinct by the transference, to the Imperial Government, of all their property, assets, and rights. In June, 1895, a British Protectorate was proclaimed over the whole of the territory, from the coast to the boundaries of Uganda, and in August, 1896, all the territories in British East Africa, except the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, and the Uganda Protectorate, became the "East Africa Protectorate", under the immediate control of the Foreign Office, governed by a Commissioner and a Consul-General, who is also British agent at Zanzibar. At the same time, the Uganda Protectorate, controlled by the Foreign Office, had its boundaries extended so as to include, besides Uganda proper, Unyoro and other countries to the west, and Usoga to the east. The territory is governed by a Commissioner residing at Port Alice, on the Victoria Nyanza, the chief town being Mengo, defended by a fort at Kampala in the near vicinity. There are also forts in Unyoro and other districts on the borders. British connection with Uganda goes back to 1877, when English Protestant missionaries, at the request of King Mtesa, settled in the country, and were followed, two years later, by French Catholics. The Christians were cruelly treated by Mtesa's son, King Mwanga, at whose order Bishop Hannington, the first prelate in Eastern Equatorial Africa, representing the Church Missionary Society, was murdered in October, 1885, and several hundred native Christians suffered martyrdom by burning. Further trouble was due to the presence of Mohammedans. In 1892 there was warfare between Protestant and Catholic sections of the people, greatly to the detriment of the cause of Christianity at large. Much progress has been made since the establishment of settled rule under the Protectorate. In the spring of 1897, the road to Lake Victoria Nyanza was completed and opened the whole way for waggon-transport. Two new fortified stations had been established on the Nile, at Foweira (Fauvera) and at Murchison Falls. In the summer of that year, a solidly-made railway-line had been carried about eighty miles into the interior from Mombasa towards Uganda. Three steamers—two government-craft, and a mission-boat—and a steel sailing-vessel ply on the Lake.

CHAPTER XII.

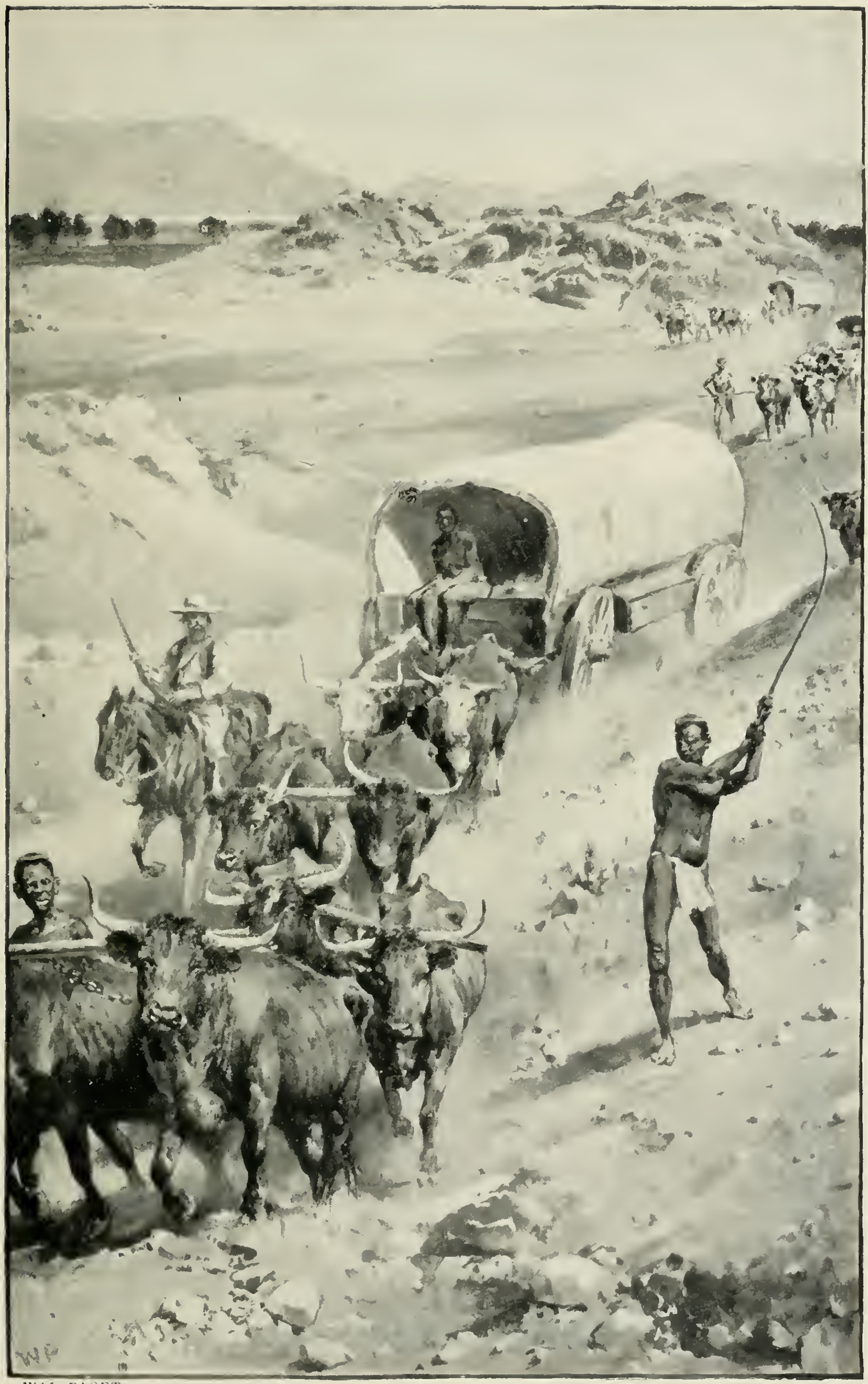
NATAL, MAURITIUS, WEST AFRICA.

History of NATAL—Its geographical features and climate—Products—Internal resources and trade—Finances—Chief towns—Legislature and education—Zululand. Earlier history of MAURITIUS—La Bourdonnais and Bernardin de Saint-Pierre—Captured by the British in 1810—Theodore Hook's administration—Devastation wrought by hurricanes, disease, and fire—Geography and productions of the island—Population—Public works, &c.—Trade—Chief towns—Legislature, education, &c.—Dependencies: Rodriguez—Seychelles—Amirantes—St. Brandon or Cargados Isles—Oil Islands—Diego Garcia—St. Paul Island—New Amsterdam Islet. WESTERN AFRICA—Gold Coast—History of the settlement—War with the Ashantis—Administration of Governor Maclean—Accession of territory—Renewed trouble with the Ashantis—Successful expedition of Sir Garnet Wolseley—Burning of Coomassie and submission of King Koffee—Government of the colony—Products and trade of the country—Social condition—Chief towns. Lagos colony and town. Gambia—History of the colony—Its products and trade. Sierra Leone—Its boundaries and physical features—Superior character of the native population—Bishop Crowther—State of education—Products and trade—Freetown. Niger Territories or Protectorate. Oil Rivers Protectorate.

It is nearly four centuries since the territory which forms the fine colony of Natal was first viewed by Europeans. On Christmas-day, 1497, Vasco da Gama, about a month after rounding the Cape of Good Hope, came in sight of the land to which he promptly gave its abiding name, from *Dies Natalis*, as the anniversary was styled in the Latin of the calendar. Nearly two centuries passed away before the first recorded visit of people from the British Isles. In 1683, a ship carrying 80 persons, passengers and crew, was wrecked near Delagoa Bay, the survivors making their way overland to the Dutch settlements at the Cape. In 1721, Dutch traders went thither, but soon abandoned their enterprise. Another century elapses, and we find Lieutenant Farewell, of the Royal Marines, in 1824, striving to colonize the territory, then in the possession of the powerful Zulu king Chaka. That potentate gave permission for the founding of a settlement, but no success attended this undertaking. Chaka, slain by rebel chiefs, was succeeded by his brother Dingaan, the instigator of the crime. Farewell was killed, and his colleague, Mr. Fynn, after remaining for some years as ruler ("great chief") of the Natal Kaffirs, under Dingaan, returned to Cape Colony in 1835. A few farmers from that colony had arrived overland in the previous year, and a site had been chosen for the township of Durban, when Natal history began, in 1837, with the

THE GREAT BOER TREK INTO NATAL.

Dissatisfied with the policy of the British Government, the Boers, or Dutch farmers, determined to emigrate from the Cape territory into the unoccupied region across the Orange river. They resented the abolition of slavery in South Africa, considered themselves wronged in the amount of compensation they received for their liberated slaves, and, above all, they desired to treat the native races just as they pleased. Accordingly, they trekked across the Orange river, a large number of them reaching Natal under the leadership of Pieter Retief. There they were received with the appearance of friendship by Dingaan, the Zulu chief, but during the negotiations about 600 men, women, and children were treacherously massacred. The Boers, however, rallied their forces, and under the leadership of Pretorius inflicted a crushing defeat on the Zulus. Thereafter, they founded the towns of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and proclaimed "The Republic of Port Natal and adjoining countries".



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THE GREAT BOER TREK TO NATAL IN 1835 36.

famous "trekking", or emigration, of a large body of Boers, or Dutch farmers, from the Cape territory, under Pieter Retief, Maritz, Pretorius, and other leaders. The causes of this remarkable movement, whence arose also the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal Republic, may be briefly stated. The old Dutch colonists were dissatisfied with the policy of the British Government in regard to the native population of South Africa and to the abolition of slavery. They resented the Order in Council of 1834, assigning equal personal rights to the Hottentots. They greatly objected to the reversal of Sir Benjamin D'Urban's annexation, up to the Kei River, of territory gained in the first Kaffir War. They considered themselves wronged in the amount of compensation awarded for the loss of their slaves. They desired, above all, to be their own masters as against the native peoples, and during 1835–36, with many adventures and hardships, some thousands of Dutch settlers made their way beyond the Orange River and to the region between its upper waters and the eastern coast. Those who reached Natal, under the guidance of Pieter Retief, suffered grievous treatment at the hands of the cruel and faithless Dingaan, who had pretended to receive them in a friendly spirit. In February, 1838, Retief and about sixty of the principal Boers were murdered during negotiations at the chieftain's kraal, and other parties, to the number of over 600 men, women, and children, were treacherously massacred by the Zulus. The Boers, rallying their strength in a stern and just spirit of retaliation and self-defence, maintained a fierce struggle with their Kaffir foes, and in December, a sanguinary defeat was inflicted, by the Boers under Pretorius, on a host of warriors who attacked his camp.

The successful party, in October, 1839, were joined by a large number of Zulus, under Panda, Dingaan's brother, and in January, 1840, another defeat of Dingaan's army transferred the Zulu kingship to his rival. The Boers, having laid the foundations of the towns of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and reserved certain territories for their own use out of the Zulu king's possessions, proclaimed "The Republic of Port Natal and adjoining countries". This action brought them at once into collision with the Government of Cape Colony, then in charge of Sir George Napier. That ruler asserted the Queen's claims over her emigrated subjects, and required them to receive a military force. The refusal of the

Boers led to a war, ending in 1842–43, after some disaster to the small British force, with the submission of some of the Boers, the passage of others beyond the Drakensberg Mountains, and the proclamation, in May, 1843, of Natal as a new British Colony. In the following year, however, the country was made part of Cape Colony, so remaining until November 5th, 1856, when it became a distinct colonial state under a royal charter which appointed a Legislative Council of 16 members, of whom four were to be nominated by the Crown, and twelve elected as representatives of towns and districts. Between 1849 and 1852, a good start was made in colonization from Great Britain. In 1853, Dr. Colenso, justly renowned for his chivalrous and truly Christian advocacy of native rights, became the first Bishop of Natal. In the following year municipal corporations were established at Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Among the troubles arising with native powers, the war with Cetewayo, successor of his father Panda, as Zulu king, in 1872, has been noticed in the history of Cape Colony. A Kaffir chieftain named Langalibalele, resident in Natal as a subject of the Government, became rebellious in 1873, but was taken prisoner, tried, and removed as a prisoner to the Cape. Since the time of the Transvaal and Zulu wars (1878–1881), the prosperity of Natal has fairly increased, partly in consequence of the discovery of rich gold-fields in the Transvaal, promoting the transport trade of the British colony, and creating a demand for her agricultural products.

Lying about 800 miles beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and 7000 miles from England by the direct sea-route, between 27° 20′ and 31° south lat., Natal is bounded on the north-east by the Buffalo and Tugela rivers, dividing it from the Transvaal and Zululand; on the east by the Indian Ocean; on the west by the Drakensberg Mountains, beyond which lie the Orange River Colony and Basutoland; and on the south-west by Griqualand East and Pondoland. The country, with an area of 20,460 square miles, is mainly a land of hills and valleys, rising by terraces from the coast to the northern and western boundaries, with a great plateau in the north-central region, attaining at some points a height of 6000 feet above the sea. The broken hilly coast-belt, with patches of wood and "bush", extending about 15 miles inland, has much picturesque dale-scenery in the lower valleys of more than a score

of streams running eastwards to the sea. The cataracts which lend beauty to the landscape block navigation on all these little rivers. The climate and products vary according to elevation. For 30 miles inland, a sub-tropical region has a mean annual temperature of about 69°, ranging from 45° to 95°, with a rainfall of about 40 inches. The weather is at its best in the winter-season, from April till October, when summer begins, to end in March, the solar heat of December, January, and February being mostly tempered by the breeze from the sea. The only drawbacks are an occasional hot sirocco from the tropical north-western regions, and some hailstorms in summer that damage growing crops, and are sometimes violent enough to kill fowls and sheep and goats on open ground. As in Cape Colony, the climate is generally very beneficial to persons suffering from pulmonary disease. At Pietermaritzburg, 50 miles inland and more than 2000 feet above sea-level, the mean annual temperature is 64°, with 29° as the minimum, and a yearly rainfall of 30 inches. Farther inland, on still higher ground, the nights become very cold, and the mountain-air by day is bracing. The chief growths of the coast-region are sugar-cane and tea, with tropical fruits of almost every kind—pine-apples, bananas, plantains, mangoes, custard-apples, guavas, lemons, limes, oranges, and many more varieties. The production of sugar is now a most important industry, supplying all South Africa, and exporting a large amount to England. Introduced in 1856, and pursued with unceasing success, the culture of the cane, needing special labour not supplied by Kaffirs, now engages over 40,000 coolies from India. North and south of Durban for about 70 miles, to a distance of six or eight miles from the coast-line, the sugar-estates are found, from which the planters send truck-loads and waggon-loads of canes, by rail and road, to the mills where the manufacturers work with the best of modern machinery and appliances. The tea-industry began in 1877 with the introduction of the plant from Assam, and the plantations are yearly extending in area. The uplands of the mid-country produce the usual European cereals and fruits; the still higher regions furnish the best of pasture for herds and flocks that, in the possession of Europeans and natives, together number about 750,000 horned cattle; over 350,000 goats, of which about 67,000 are "Angoras", belonging to Europeans; 950,000 wool-bearing sheep, all on Europeans' land;

and about 60,000 horses. While 2¼ million acres have been set apart for native occupation, and 9 million acres have been acquired by Europeans, mostly on grant from the Crown, the total area under tillage by whites is about 204,000 acres, with 380,000 acres estimated as the area cultivated by native farmers. 700,000 acres are held on lease from the Government for grazing, and about 1 million acres are still at the disposal of the Crown. The wild plants of Natal, resembling those of Cape Colony, include many kinds of heath. The eucalyptus or blue gum-tree, and other kinds of timber, have been planted by colonists to increase the supply of home-grown needful wood. The eland and hartebeest, now preserved as "royal game", are the only survivors of the former vast herds of antelope. There are some poisonous snakes, including the puff-adder. The huge python may be found in sea-board woods, and in the reed-beds of river-banks; alligators are seen in some of the rivers, and at the mouths of the northern streams the hippopotamus is not unknown. The minerals of the colony include a large supply of coal, useful for all ordinary firing and as railway-fuel. The annual output from coal-fields directly connected with the sea-outlet at Durban exceeds 387,000 tons.

Good roads, railways, telegraph wires, and several lines of steamers, including the ships of the *Union* and *Castle* Companies, afford internal and external communications. Steamers for Cape Colony leave two or three times a week, and there are regular vessels plying to and from East African ports, Mauritius, India, and Australia. The colony is connected with London by cable through Zanzibar and Aden. Over 400 miles of railway, all Government-lines in construction and working, were open in 1898. The main line, 307 miles in length, passes from Durban, by way of Pietermaritzburg and Ladysmith, to Charlestown on the frontier of the Transvaal, and thence to Johannesburg and Pretoria, the total distance from Durban being 511 miles. The total cost of construction has exceeded 6 millions. The net receipts for the year 1895 afforded an interest of £4, 1*s.* per cent upon the capital expended. The European population, nearly 47,000 by the census of 1891, was found to have been more than doubled in the twelve years since 1879, an increase of which nearly one-third was caused by free passages for domestic servants, and for farmers and their families taking up selected lands, and by assisted passages

granted by the same authority, the Land and Immigration Board in Natal, to farm-labourers, miners, mechanics, and artisans, nominated by residents in the colony who guarantee employment at stated wages for a certain term. The Indian coolies, chiefly from Madras Presidency, are indentured for ten years, at the end of which time they may either settle in the colony, or be sent back to India without charge. In 1891, their number just exceeded 41,000. The great proportionate number of natives, forming over four-fifths of the whole population, is a peculiar feature of Natal. Chiefly Kaffirs of the Ama-Zulu tribe, they numbered, in 1891, about 456,000, of whom over four-fifths live on lands as owners or tenants or squatters engaged in pastoral work or in the production of the universal native cereals used as food, maize (mealies), and millet (Kaffir corn). The rest are employed as domestic servants, as farm-labourers, and in other work. The Kaffirs are a fine, intelligent, frank, and well-mannered people, easily ruled under a system which wisely and liberally gives ample scope to native law and custom in the administration of justice, and even provides means for their acquiring colonial rights including the franchise. The recent growth of prosperity in Natal is partly due, as already stated, to the great development of gold-mining in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, causing an increased transit-trade in specie and goods, through the British colony, to and from the eastern coast. The extension of the railway-system, and a wise fiscal policy, are also largely concerned in this matter. An *ad valorem* duty of only 5 per cent on imported goods is a customs-rate which has drawn to the Natal shores much trade with the interior which a high tariff would have driven into other channels. In referring to the exports of this thriving and promising British possession, we omit the gold produced outside the colony, and must note that only a small portion of the wool is raised in Natal, the weight due to the colony itself being estimated at about 1,600,000 lbs. The total imports by sea exceed the value of 5¼ millions; the exports reach nearly 1½ million. The whole value of British produce and manufactures sent thither exceeds 3½ millions; the British imports from Natal are about ¾ million in value, the chief items, apart from wool (about £500,000), being hides and raw sugar. To other countries, the colony despatches Angora hair, coal, sugar, and rum.

With a public debt over 8 millions sterling, the annual revenue now amounts to about 2 millions. More than a million is derived from the railways, about £385,000 from customs, over £20,000 from excise, about £45,000 from land-sales, about £85,000 from mails and telegraphs, £32,000 from stamps and licenses, and about £130,000 from the native hut-tax of 14*s*. a year, with a rental of £1 per hut on natives living on Crown-lands. The chief items of expenditure are about £538,000 for railways, £52,000 for education, about £225,000 for defence, £93,000 for public works, and a sum of about £607,000, as "loan expenditure", giving a total of about £2,400,000. The chief towns are the municipal boroughs of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, and Ladysmith, Newcastle, and Verulam, governed by local boards. *Durban* (Port Natal), the chief port of the colony, lies on the northern shore of a nearly land-locked tidal bay. With a population, in 1898, of about 39,000, the town has excellent public buildings, including a museum, library, and theatre, with Town Gardens in the centre, Botanical Gardens, two public parks, a race-course, fine streets, tram-cars, good lighting, a good supply of pure water, and an average death-rate of only 17 per 1000. The low wooded hills overlooking the town, styled the Berea, display the chief residences. The Bluff, a bold promontory at the southern entrance to the port, which is called The Point, is armed with heavy Armstrong guns. The sand-bar at the entrance of the harbour was for many years a hindrance to shipping, but great improvement has been recently made. Thirteen feet of water now cover the bar at ebb-tide, and the tidal rise varies from 3 to 6 feet. Three powerful Government-tugs assist vessels of smaller size across the bar to the inner harbour, kept by dredging at a minimum depth of 27 feet. The largest ships find good anchorage outside, where they deliver and receive cargo by means of lighters conveyed to and fro by tugs. A million sterling has been expended on harbour-works, including the breakwater on the southern side, with 32 feet low-water depth at its outer end; a training wall on the north side of the entrance-channel, 300 yards broad; inner wharves, tugs, and dredging apparatus. The town maintains four corps of volunteers, naval, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, with a total strength of about 500 men and 8 guns. The situation of *Pietermaritzburg*, the capital and chief military station, has been already noted. The population (July, 1898) was 24,600.

The public buildings, including a fine town-hall, are good, and the city, well supplied with water, has streets and suburbs planted with trees that afford a grateful shade in the summer-heat.

In July, 1893, the colony of Natal came under "responsible government". The Legislative Council, appointed by the Governor with the advice of the ministry, consists of 12 members chosen for ten years, each of whom must have resided at least ten years in the colony, and be 30 years of age. The Legislative Assembly of 39 members is chosen by about 11,000 registered electors for towns and divisions, qualified by possession of real property to the value of £50, or by a £10 rental, or, after three years' residence in the colony, by an annual income of £96. The first ministry of five members, Premier and Colonial Secretary in one, Attorney-General, Treasurer, "Native Affairs", and "Public Works", was formed in October, 1893, and is described, by one who ought to know, as "composed of hard-headed, intelligent, and energetic colonists of tried integrity and experience". The Legislative Assembly may exist for four years without dissolution; the members are paid £1 per day during the session. Education for white children, 96 per cent of whom are under instruction, is conducted in 2 Government high schools, 14 Government primary-schools, 58 aided establishments, many private schools, and 227 assisted "farmhouse centres". About 13,500 Kaffir and Indian (coolie) children are taught in about 215 schools with Government-grants. The defence of the colony, and the maintenance of order, are in the hands of 660 mounted European police, and over 1600 volunteers, with about 1200 Imperial troops, including a battery of mountain-guns quartered at the capital.

Zululand was lately a British "protectorate" beyond the Tugela River, in charge of the Governor of Natal, with a "Resident Commissioner and Chief Magistrate" as his deputy. The territory, taken over by the British Government in 1887, after the Zulu War, the dethronement of Cetewayo, his restoration and death (February, 1884), and warfare between the Boers of the Transvaal and Cetewayo's rival, Usibepu, was annexed to Cape Colony in 1897. The country, about 12,500 square miles in area, with a population of about 165,000 natives and 1250 whites, has its capital at *Eshowe*, in telegraphic communication with Natal, and having a daily post of native runners. Good roads are made to the

Tugela, and to several points on the Transvaal frontier. The native chiefs are allowed to keep their tribal authority, and to administer native law. In other respects, the law of Natal is in force, modified in special cases by the Governor's proclamations. Expenses of rule are partly met by the annual hut-tax of 14*s.* levied on the natives, whose occupations are the growing of maize and breeding of cattle. The trade consists largely in the barter of these products for cotton-goods, hardware, and other articles. The supply of alcoholic liquors to the Kaffirs, in any way of trade or payment or gift, is strictly forbidden. The settlement of Europeans is only allowed for purposes of trade or mining or missionary work. A few hundreds of native children attend schools conducted by the agents of four societies. The Anglican Church is represented by the Bishop of Zululand and some clergy, the see being founded in 1870 in memory of Bishop Mackenzie of Central Africa.

Mauritius, historically reviewed, is an island of abundant interest, bringing before us many celebrated names. It was discovered in 1507 by a Portuguese navigator, Don Pedro Mascarenhas, exploring under the orders of Almeida, the famous East Indian viceroy. Then devoid of inhabitants, it presented no traces of any previous dwellers. During the sixteenth century it appears to have remained uncolonized, with the name of Cerné, bestowed by the Portuguese under the belief that it was the island so styled by the elder Pliny in his *Historia Naturalis*. In 1598 this name was changed for "Mauritius" by a Dutch admiral, Van Warwick, whose vessel was driven thither by a storm, being thus parted from her consorts of a squadron sailing for the Dutch East Indies under the command of Admiral Van Neck. His flagship *Mauritius* was named after the illustrious Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and Stadtholder of the United Provinces, youngest son of William the Silent, whose great task of freeing the country from Spanish domination was by him so nobly fulfilled. The new possessors used the island for many years merely as a place of call for ships. Abel Jansen Tasman stayed there for a month in 1642, the year wherein he immortalized his name as the discoverer of Tasmania. In 1644, the Dutch made three settlements, and built a fort at Grand Port, on the south-east coast, for the purpose of summary dealing with pirates who used the island

as a resort for provisions and fresh water. In 1712, however, the place was abandoned, and three years later the French, who had long held the neighbouring Bourbon (Réunion), saw their advantage in occupying territory which two other European nations had in turn declined. In 1721, the island, under the name of "Ile de France", was assigned to the French East India Company, and in 1767 passed to the French crown. It was between these two last dates that a successful attempt at colonization was made, bringing before us the name of the distinguished Frenchman of Clive's earlier days, Bertrand François Mahé de La Bourdonnais, a man not less remarkable for his talents and virtues than for the gross ingratitude with which, like Dupleix and Lally, he was treated by the wretched Government of Louis the Fifteenth. This brave, resolute, enlightened, and energetic man waged war, with much temporary success, against British commerce in the Indian seas; he was the captor of Madras; and he returned to France to be flung into the Bastille, which he quitted only to die, after years of unmerited suffering. He it was that created French prosperity in the island which he ruled from 1735 to 1746. Peace and order were established in the destruction of a body of fugitive slaves living in the hilly districts, whence they sallied forth to plunder the settlers. The foundation of Port Louis, the capital; the building of forts, the creation of docks, the clearing of forest, and the making of roads, were only accessories to La Bourdonnais' scheme for the creation of a solid and enduring prosperity. It was he who introduced the cultivation of the sugar-cane which still furnishes the staple industry of Mauritius. The bronze statue, erected in 1859, which stands in one of the public squares facing the harbour at Port Louis, testifies to the esteem in which his memory has been held. The commerce of Great Britain, in the eighteenth, and in the earlier years of the nineteenth century, suffered much, directly and indirectly, through the strong representations by which he caused the French Government to make the island a base of operations against our trade and power in the East. Ships and soldiers were provided for the Ile de France and Bourbon, and, in the ensuing warfare, down to the period when the power of Napoleon was at its height, our great European foe made good use of her point of vantage midway between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Comorin.

The colony steadily rose in value during its tenure by the

French crown. One of the later governors, De Poivre, introduced the growth of clove, nutmeg, and other spice-trees. It was at this period that the picturesque scenery of the Ile de France was viewed and employed by a writer whose chief work has an enduring place in literature. Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, a disciple of Rousseau in his sentimental views against the social system and in favour of a return to a state of nature, passed three years in the island, from 1768 to 1771, and, after giving a new element to literature in the appreciation of natural beauty and its power over man's spirit which he displays in his *Voyage à l'Ile de France*, he published in 1788 the fourth volume of his *Etudes de la Nature* which contains the exquisite love-idyll known as *Paul et Virginie*, praised by Humboldt for the wonderful truth of its descriptions of tropical vegetation, translated into all the chief European tongues, and a special favourite with Napoleon. Passing from the region of romance to the stern realities of war, we now deal with the change of masters in the land which inspired the pen of Saint-Pierre. During the long struggle with Napoleon, the Ile de France, as the resort of French frigates and privateers, became an intolerable mischief to British trade. The seas from Madagascar to Java were swept by these cruisers against our Indiamen and other ships. The merchants of Calcutta alone set down their losses at two millions sterling, and the East India Company, in a single year, suffered to the extent of half a million. In 1810, a powerful naval and military expedition, despatched from India, effected the capture. The name of the island again became Mauritius, and its possession was confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1814, under which instrument the French inhabitants were guaranteed in the possession and use of their laws, religion, and institutions. To this day, the Code Napoléon is the basis of the judicial system, and the Catholic Church receives the same state-assistance as the Anglican. From 1812 to 1818, the post of treasurer, at a salary of £2000 a-year, was held by Theodore Hook, foremost of English diners-out, *improvisatori*, and practical jokers. The scandalous job of appointing such a man to such a post was perpetrated under the rule of his boon-companion, the Prince Regent, who had remarked that "something must be done for Hook". A deficiency of £12,000 was discovered in the public accounts, probably due to Hook's gross carelessness in supervising the work of subordinates. The man's

reckless wit, when he was asked, on his way home under arrest, if he were returning "for his health", prompted the reply that "they do think there's something wrong in the chest".

Fairly prosperous, in a commercial sense, during the British occupation, Mauritius has suffered, from time to time, calamities almost unparalleled, in so small a territory, for variety and intensity of mischievous effect. Storm, pestilence, and fire have wrought havoc by turns on "Maurice La Malheureuse". In 1754 a devastating hurricane visited the island, and small-pox destroyed many hundreds of lives. The season of cyclones, accompanied by torrents of rain, comes between December and April, the extreme violence of the wind usually lasting for about eight hours. In 1773, another of these terrible storms drove 32 ships ashore in the harbour, and, with loss of life, laid low in ruin 300 houses and the church at Port Louis. In 1819 Asiatic cholera was very fatal, and in 1854 a far worse visitation of the same disease carried off 16,000 people. Another cholera-epidemic did its evil work in 1862. Only four years later, in 1866–67, a malarial fever surpassed in fatality the worst assaults of the former plagues. The population was, literally, more than decimated. Port Louis lost about 21,300 persons in 1867, more than a quarter of her whole number, and the death-rate for the whole island, in that miserable year, reached the appalling proportion of 111 per thousand. Scarcely had the survivors ceased to bewail their dead when, in March, 1868, a cyclone did work of almost unequalled violence and power. The wind uplifted and flung to the bottom of a ravine 220 tons of the iron-work of the railway-bridge crossing Grande Rivière, near the coast south-west of Port Louis. The same storm destroyed canes estimated to produce 60,000 tons of sugar. In April, 1892, a cyclone, described by a resident as "unprecedented in destructiveness to life and property", destroyed one-third of Port Louis, with the loss of about 1000 lives, laying in ruins all the houses over thirty acres of the chief residential quarter of the town. This disastrous event was succeeded by a serious bank-failure; a fatal epidemic of small-pox; and an outbreak of influenza, slaying the poorer inhabitants at the rate of over one hundred per day. On July 23rd, 1893, fire laid waste, at the fashionable end—the west end, as in London—of Port Louis, nearly all that the previous year's cyclone had spared. Fifteen acres of the best shopping and commercial quarter were

reduced to ashes. The Chaussée—the local Regent-street, the French Creole ladies' shopping-lounge, the emporium of Palais Royal jewellery and Parisian fashions—ceased to exist, with the principal hotel, the leading newspaper-office and printing-house, the largest ironmongery store, the one ice-house with all its machinery, and some of the chief warehouses. The buildings of the town were highly inflammable, and the place was deplorably and culpably deficient in the means of coping with fire. The engines were wholly inadequate, and there were no hydrants for the supply of water. The only loss of life was that of a British tar engaged in the work of rescue, one of the hundreds of sailors who were landed from the war-ships of the East Indian squadron then lying in the harbour.

Mauritius, of volcanic formation and surrounded by a girdle of coral-reefs broken only by passages opposite the river-mouths, lies 550 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 7000 miles from England by way of the Suez Canal. The shape is an oval, somewhat pointed at the north, with coasts little broken, and land rising rapidly into a plateau marked, on the east, south-west, and north-centre, by many ridges of hills varying in height from 500 to over 2000 feet. The highest peaks are Pieter Both (or, Peter Botte), a sharp bare cone or obelisk crowned by an enormous globular crag, and 2676 feet in height; La Pouce, 2650 feet, named from its resemblance to the human thumb; and the culminating point, Piton de la Rivière Noire, 2711. The numerous streams, navigable for only a short distance from the sea, generally flow in deep ravines, with some fine cascades. Lava and basaltic rock abound, and a few volcanic lakes may be seen. With a length of 36 miles from north to south, and an extreme breadth of 25 miles, the island has an area of about 710 square miles, nearly equal to that of Surrey. The north is a great plain covered with plantations of sugar-cane, and the east has rich and well-tilled districts, with a soil variously composed of stiff clay and of black vegetable mould. The only natural harbours that vessels can safely approach and enter are Port Louis on the north-west, Baie de la Rivière Noire (Black River Bay) on the south-west, and Grand Port on the south-east. The climate, on the whole, is agreeable and healthy, the hottest time being from December to April, with comparative coolness in other months, and a lower temperature always in the hills than is found at Port Louis,

with its mean of 78°. The annual rainfall in the north amounts generally to about 40 inches; in the south the downpour is more abundant, but in this respect the climate, throughout the island, is capricious, and the rainfall varies much from year to year. The forests of the days of Saint Pierre have now been largely removed for the culture of the sugar-cane in the fields where their bright green gives a charming freshness and beauty to the landscape viewed from the sea. The ebony-tree, the benzoin, iron-wood, cocoa-nut and other palms, and bamboo abound. The other vegetation resembles that of the Cape in succulent plants such as cactuses, spurges, and aloes. The fruits of this tropical land include pine-apples in perfection, delicious to eat, fork in hand, freshly cut in the early morn; the tamarind and banana; the guava and shaddock; the fig and avocado-pear; the custard-apple and the litchi (lee-chee), with its slightly sweet, subacid, and all-pleasant flavour; and mangoes, good for all sorts and conditions of men, best gift of nature to dwellers in the hotter regions of the earth; refreshing and reviving for those who have tossed and turned during a sultry, sleepless night. The objects of tillage, besides the cane, are vanilla, coffee, cocoa, maize, rice, yams, many European roots and other vegetables, and manioc, as it is called in Brazil, the cassava of the West Indies, whose huge tuberous root, grated, dried on hot metal plates, and powdered, furnishes meal for thin cakes, starch for the British manufacturer, and the article known as Brazilian arrowroot. The original fauna, save a fruit-eating bat, are almost extinct. The birds include doves, parroquets, and shrikes; monkeys, rats, shrews, hares, and other creatures have been introduced; the game includes deer that abound in the woods, with partridge, quail, and several kinds of wild duck. For the scenery as it now exists, and the way of life among Creole or British planters, we must refer readers to those charming productions of Besant and Rice, *My Little Girl* and *They Were Married*, in the latter of which Mauritius appears as "Palmiste Island".

The population, by the latest estimate, is about 380,000, with a majority of more than 40,000 males, and the high average density of 530 per square mile. Above two-thirds of the people are of Hindoo origin, the majority being descended from coolies imported for the sugar-cane tillage. The Europeans are chiefly French and English and of these two races mingled; there are

many half-castes, and thousands of negroes, Malagasy (Madagascar people), Chinese, and Malays, with Singhalese (Ceylon people) and some Parsees. The French element includes many descendants of the old French nobility, and the higher and middle classes are of distinguished intelligence, culture, and education. No other tropical colony has so many permanent residents of European blood. In religion, the census of 1891 showed nearly 210,000 Hindoos, above 115,000 Roman Catholics, 7300 Protestants, and nearly 35,000 Mohammedans. French is spoken all over the island, and English also is largely used; the latter is the language of the public courts; either tongue is admissible in debate at the Legislative Council. As regards public works, the chief centres of population now enjoy a good supply of pure water brought by mains from the upland springs, and, for Port Louis, from a reservoir on the Grande Rivière, a benefit which has already had a marked effect on the prevalence of fever. The different parts of the island are connected by macadamized main and branch roads, well maintained under Government care, and 92 miles of railway, constructed and worked at the public cost, pass through the centre, the north, the east, and the south, connecting the chief towns, with telegraphic wires running along and beyond the lines. Port Louis harbour, naturally one of the best and safest in the Eastern seas, with room for 100 sail, and entrance for the largest steamers, is provided with three spacious dry docks and a slip for vessels of 350 tons. The mail-steamers of the *Messageries Maritimes* ply monthly to and from Marseilles, with an average passage for that route of 21 days, on their way between France and New Caledonia. The boats of the British India Steam Navigation Company run monthly to Colombo, and by the *Messageries* and other vessels, sailing and steam, Mauritius has frequent communication with neighbouring islands, and with India, Australia, Natal, and other parts of the world. Durban and Zanzibar are at present the nearest points where a telegraph-cable is found. The standard coin is the Indian rupee, and the Indian metric system of weights and measures is in force.

The trade of Mauritius is carried on not so much with the United Kingdom as with other parts of the British Empire. The annual exports to the British Isles, chiefly in sugar, drugs, hemp, and aloe fibres, caoutchouc, and rum, have a total value of

£100,000. The imports of the colony from Great Britain, consisting of cotton-goods, coal, hardware, cutlery, machinery, manure, drapery and clothing, beer and ale, bullion and specie, amount to about £250,000. As the total value of her imports reaches over 2 millions sterling, and that of her exports nearly 3 millions, it is plain that we must look elsewhere for much of the Mauritian commerce. Without going into details further than stating that sugar alone, in one year, accounts for a value of over 2½ millions sterling, we find that the colony was exporting aloe fibre and vanilla to France, and rum to Madagascar, and was receiving coal from Australia; coffee, rice, wheat and other grains, flour, and cotton piece-goods from India; wheat and flour from Australasia; dried and salted fish from Cape Colony; drapery, millinery, and wine from France; guano, much used in the cane-culture, from Australasia and Peru; oxen from Madagascar; and sheep from Australia and South Africa. The chief towns are Port Louis, Curepipe, and Mahébourg. The capital, *Port Louis*, a municipal borough, with a debenture-debt of £153,000, is inclosed by a ring of lofty hills. Rising now from the ruin caused by the disasters of storm and fire above recorded, she possesses the usual public buildings; a population, in town and suburbs, exceeding 60,000; barracks and military stores; Fort Adelaide (the citadel), Fort George, and other works for the defence of a place which is the seat of all the Mauritian trade, and is also a coaling-station for ships of the royal navy. *Curepipe*, in the south-central part of the island, connected by rail with Port Louis, is a municipal borough of 11,000 people. Lying over 1800 feet above sea-level, it is blessed with a comparatively cool climate, which attracts many persons to their hill-residences in the hot season. *Mahébourg*, on the south-east coast, with about 4000 people, derives her name from one of the forenames of La Bourdonnais, added to his baptismal names for his services, in 1724, as a captain in the French royal navy, at the capture of the town of Mahé, on the Malabar coast of Southern India.

In system of rule, Mauritius is a "Crown colony", with a constitution modified in 1884–85. The Governor is aided by an Executive Council of seven members, including two elected members of the Council of Government or Legislative Council. This latter body consists of the Governor and 27 members; nine are nominated by the Governor, eight sit *ex-officio*, and ten are chosen, under

a moderate franchise, by the inhabitants, two for Port Louis, and one for each of the other eight rural districts into which the island is divided. Primary education is given in Government and state-aided schools having about 16,500 pupils on the roll, and above 10,000 in average attendance. For higher instruction, the Royal College, in 1892, had 200 pupils, and 313 were attending schools connected therewith. The annual revenue, derived mainly from customs-dues, railway traffic, and licenses and permits, exceeds 8¼ million rupees; the expenditure is about 8½ millions. The Government debt is about £1,280,000. In regard to the development of education and general culture, we may note that in the capital eight daily newspapers, as well as weekly and other periodicals, are published. For the maintenance of order and for general defence, about 700 police, and 950 officers and men of the Imperial army, are maintained, one-third of the military expenditure being borne by the colony.

Many islands, islets, and groups are dependencies of Mauritius, subject to the rule of the Governor and Council at Port Louis. Spread over the Indian Ocean, to the number of about 100, with a total population of 17,000, they include Rodriguez, four groups—the Seychelles, Amirantes, Oil Islands, and St. Brandon or Cargados Isles—and many scattered little sea-beaten belongings of the Crown. *Rodriguez*, with Réunion (Bourbon) and Mauritius, belongs to a group sometimes called the Mascarene Isles, or Mascarenhas, from the name of the discoverer of Mauritius. This volcanic, coral-girt, hilly region, rising to a height of 1760 feet above sea-level, discovered by the Portuguese in 1645, and occupied as British territory in 1814, lies 380 miles north-east of Mauritius, and is 18 miles long by 7 broad. Well-wooded in parts, it is picturesque, fertile, healthy, and fairly tilled, with a population a little exceeding 2000, ruled by a civil commissioner with the powers of a police-magistrate. Among the local attractions are two caverns displaying beautiful transparent stalactites, and each containing a well of good fresh water. The bracing air made the island of great service to the British troops, as a station and a sanitarium for sick and wounded men, at the time of the expedition against Mauritius and Bourbon. The fauna include deer, wild pigs, guinea-fowl, and partridge. Abundant springs of fresh water and excellent pasture favour the rearing of cattle and goats; the soil is well suited for

sugar-cane, cotton, coffee, rice, maize, beans, and vanilla; the fruits grown are oranges, citrons, limes, and most others usual in the tropics. The annual exports amount to about 170,000 rupees, and are made up of cattle and goats, beans and maize, pigs and poultry, salt-fish and fruit.

The important group called the *Seychelles*, with an area of 78 square miles, and a population (1891) of nearly 16,500 (ruled by an "Administrator" aided by an executive council of three, and a legislative council of five), consists of 30 larger islands and many smaller ones, lying about 600 miles north-east of Madagascar. Fairly fertile, very hilly, with a rainfall of 80 to 100 inches, the islands, with a temperature very moderate for a region within 5 degrees of the equator, are extremely healthy for Europeans. Probably known to, but not occupied by, early Portuguese navigators, the group became the resort, in the seventeenth century, of pirates infesting the Indian Ocean. French occupation, in 1742, when La Bourdonnais ruled Mauritius and Bourbon, introduced the growth of cinnamon, nutmegs, and cloves, with the object of depriving the Dutch of their lucrative monopoly in those spices. The group derives its name from a French noble of the period, the Vicomte Hérault de Seychelles. When war arose between France and England in 1778, the whole of the spice-trees were destroyed by fire at the hands of the French officials, in fear of a British occupation, which first occurred in 1794, and was formally renewed on the seizure of Mauritius in 1810. The largest island, Mahé, named after La Bourdonnais' forename of honour above mentioned, is 17 miles by 7, having an area of 59 square miles, and containing the greater part of the inhabitants of the group, who are mainly French creoles, negroes, and Indian coolies, with some British officials. The mountains in Mahé reach a height of nearly 3000 feet. The chief town, Victoria, in a valley on the north-east, has a safe and convenient harbour, which makes it the port of call for the *Messageries Maritimes* steamers on the voyage to and from Australia, and also a coaling-station for our navy and for the merchant-steamers of several nations. There is also steam-communication with Mauritius, Madagascar, and Zanzibar. The other islands, many bearing the names of former French nobles and officials, include Praslin, Silhouette, La Digue, Curieuse, Aride, Félicité, and Denis. The yearly imports amount to over 750,000

rupees in cotton-goods, flour, beans, alcoholic liquors, tobacco, sugar, salt, hardware, and various provisions. The exports, worth about 700,000 rupees, consist of cocoa-nuts and the oil extracted therefrom, maize, vanilla, tortoise-shell, and soap, with some cacao, nutmegs, and coffee. The people make beautiful hats from the leaves of the hard-wooded palm called *coco de mer*, whose fruit, with two nuts in one case, ripens only in the islands of Praslin and Curieuse. Carried by ocean-currents to the coast of the Maldive Isles, to the Indian mainland, and to further regions of the East, the double-kernelled nut became the subject of fables as to its growth on a submarine tree, and its power as an antidote for poison. Education is liberally aided by the Government in twenty primary schools, eight managed by clergy of the Anglican Church, and twelve under the Roman Catholic Mission. The negroes of the Seychelles are mostly men rescued from slavery through capture, by British cruisers, of the Arab dhows that conduct their infamous traffic on the north-eastern coast of Africa.

The *Amirantes* are a group of eleven low-lying wooded islands of coral formation, south-west of the Seychelles. The products are cocoa-nut oil and a little maize, and some of the islets are used as fishing-stations. With a total area of about 32 square miles, they are peopled by about 100 French-speaking half-breeds. The *St. Brandon* or *Cargados* isles (Tromelin, Coco, and Albatross, with some mere sand-banks), lying between 16° 20′, and 16° 50′ S. lat. and about 59° 30′ E. long., produce some salt fish. *The Oil Islands* include the *Chagos* group, the Trois Frères or Eagle Isles, and the Cosmoledo Isles, to be found between about 7° and 10° S. lat., and from 48° to 72° E. long. Among all these, the only important one is *Diego Garcia* (or Great Chagos), chief of the Chagos isles. It lies in 7° S. lat. and between 72° and 73° E. long., about 100 miles south of the main group. The island is a coral atoll, a form of coral island consisting of a ring of rock, with greater or lesser openings, inclosing a lagoon. The horns of the irregular horse-shoe or crescent-shaped land, nowhere exceeding 10 feet in height above the sea, embrace a fine bay, 15 miles in length and from 2 to 5 in breadth, with entrance for large ships. A glance at the map shows the value, especially since the opening of the Suez Canal, of Diego Garcia to the British navy and mercantile marine. The island lies on a straight line drawn from the Gulf of Aden, the

approach to the Red Sea, and Cape Leeuwin, on the south-west coast of Australia. It is thus placed full on the route for steamers between Great Britain and Australian ports, and has become a coaling-station, inhabited by 700 people, chiefly negro-labourers from Mauritius. There is a considerable export of cocoa-nut oil. The detached islands in the Indian Ocean, belonging to Great Britain, and subject to the Government of Mauritius, are scarcely worth naming, since none have at present any permanent population. *St. Paul*, a bare volcanic islet, 2 miles long, and towering up nearly 900 feet above the sea, lies midway between Africa and Australia, in 38° 42′ s. lat. It was here that in June, 1871, the troopship *Megaera*, with hundreds of soldiers aboard, was perforce beached by her captain, in order to save the lives of men sent to sea in a vessel notoriously unfit for so lengthy a voyage. After a detention of eleven weeks, they were rescued by a P. and O. steamer despatched from Batavia on receipt of intelligence conveyed by one of the *Megaera's* officers, who thus risked his life in an open boat. *Amsterdam*, or *New Amsterdam*, 50 miles to the north of St. Paul, is a smaller, almost inaccessible, islet with dense vegetation. St. Paul and Amsterdam were lately ceded to France.

From the Indian Ocean we must now take our flight across the continent to Western Africa, where the British colonial empire consists of the Gold Coast, Lagos, Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Niger Territories, and the Oil Rivers Protectorate. The *Gold Coast* colony is a territory in Upper Guinea, extending for about 350 miles of sea-board, between 3° w. long. and 1° 20′ E. long., bounded on the west by the Ivory Coast, and by the Slave Coast on the east. The inland boundary is vague, but the districts under immediate British rule generally extend about 50 miles from the sea to the borders of the territories called Ashanti and Dahomey, with an area estimated at 15,000 square miles, increased by our "protectorate" to thrice that amount. The whole population may be 1½ millions, of whom only about 150 are Europeans, dwelling amongst pure negroes of various tribes. The country rises gradually from the lagoons near the low, swampy, harbourless, surf-beaten shores into a region of forests watered by many small streams. The Volta, on the east, and the Ancobra, on the west, are the only navigable rivers, traversed by steam-launches and other small craft, both during the dry and rainy seasons, for 50 or 60 miles inland.

The moist heat and malaria make the climate, as is well known, very unhealthy for Europeans. The mean temperature is 80° in the shade, ranging from 72° to 90° at Cape Coast Castle. The sanitary state of the colony has, however; been much improved of late years. British rule has at last interfered with the dirty conditions of life prevalent among the natives, who have been prohibited from burying their dead in the ground adjacent to their dwellings. The annual rainfall, coming between April and October, amounts to 60 inches.

The history of the Gold Coast settlements up to 1801 has been already given. The "African Company of Merchants", who were then in possession, received an annual parliamentary grant of about £13,000 from 1750 to 1807, a sum increased to £23,000 after the latter year, when the Company's finances began to suffer through the abolition of the slave-trade. In 1821, the Company was dissolved by Act of Parliament, and the Crown took charge of the settlements and forts, placing them under the rule of Sierra Leone. It was in 1824 that, with Sir Charles MacCarthy as Governor, the Ashantis first came into serious collision with British power. That conquering negro-race, skilled in the simpler arts of manufacture, addicted to human sacrifices, and maintaining a real army of warriors, rose to power early in the eighteenth century, with Coomassie (Kumassi) as their capital. In the desultory warfare between the Dutch and the English, they always took part with our foes, while the African Company were aided by the Fantis, a people akin to the Ashantis. From 1807 onwards the Ashanti king was almost as much master on the coast as inland, and Sir Charles MacCarthy, on visiting Cape Coast Castle, was stirred into action on behalf of British interests and of our oppressed allies. His zeal was not backed by prudence and skill. Ignoring the prowess of the enemy, and the need of waging war, in all fields of action and against all opponents, on the scientific principle of adapting means to ends, Sir Charles divided his forces into four bodies, and on January 21st, 1824, he found himself, with one of his divisions, surrounded in a hollow near a river-bank by a host of 10,000 Ashantis. In the battle which ensued, the British leader was killed by a musket-ball in the chest; all the British officers, save two, were captured or slain, and MacCarthy's head, and those of two officers, were carried off as trophies of victory. It was not until the following May that

our forces again appeared in the field. Colonel Sutherland had then arrived as the new Governor. The coast-forts were manned by seamen and marines, and their garrisons were thus set free to act with our native allies, the whole being commanded by Colonel Chisholm. On May 21st, a great army of Ashantis, after five hours' hard fighting, was driven from the field, but the advantage could not be followed up, from lack of ammunition, transport, and stores, and from the desertion of the natives whose cause we were aiding. The enemy then returned in force and burnt the villages near Cape Coast Castle. Early in July, some reinforcements arrived from England, and the Ashantis, bringing 16,000 warriors to the encounter, were defeated with great loss, leaving many of their principal chieftains on the ground. Further weakened by mutiny and desertion in his still great and formidable army, the hostile king withdrew from the coast a few days later, leaving behind him bare and blood-stained fields where his advance had found rich crops of bananas and maize, plantains and yams. The horrors of famine befell the native population within the settlements, and the British garrison was, for a time, hard put to it for beef and bread. After two years' quiet preparation for a renewal of the struggle, the Ashanti king appeared again near the coast in July, 1826, and on August 7th a tremendous battle was fought. The enemy were routed with the loss, it was believed, of 5000 men; on our side, the killed and wounded approached 3000. The victory was decisive in the capture of the Ashanti king's golden state-umbrella and state-stool, with much wealth of ivory, gold-dust, and other native products; and in the loss of his great talisman, which was found to be Sir Charles MacCarthy's skull, enveloped first in paper covered with Arabic characters, then in a silk handkerchief, and finally in leopard-skin.

The Colonial Office of that day had, by this time, grown weary of the Gold Coast and its affairs, and the government of the colony was now transferred, with a payment of £4000 from the Exchequer, to the local and London merchants who were interested in the trade of that region. They appointed, in 1827, Mr. George Maclean as Governor, a gentleman afterwards, for a very brief space, the husband of the once popular writer of charming verse, "L. E. L.", letters representing Laetitia Elizabeth Landon. She died by accidental poisoning in 1838, two months after arriving

at Cape Coast Castle. Governor Maclean, for some years, did excellent service in maintaining peace and gaining respect for the British name by an administration displaying, towards the natives, admirable tact and judgment, honesty and justice. In 1843, the Crown again took charge of the colony, which was made a dependency of Sierra Leone, and Mr. Maclean continued to direct Native Affairs, as "Judicial Assessor to the Native Chiefs", until his death in 1847. Three years later, the Danish settlements at Accra, Quittah (Kwitta), Addah, and Ningo, along with the "protectorate" connected therewith, were sold to our Government for £10,000. The next accession of territory in this quarter came in 1872, when Holland transferred her forts at Elmina, and all her rights on the Gold Coast, to the possession of Great Britain.

Returning now to the Ashantis, we find that people causing trouble again in the spring of 1863. The Governor had very properly refused to give up some slaves of the king who had escaped to British ground, and the Ashanti monarch, invading the territories of neighbouring chiefs, and destroying many villages, arrived within 40 miles of our frontier. Sound strategy would have awaited his advance, but the British ruler thought fit to send an expedition into his territory during the unhealthy season, and the result was total failure. Even our black troops from the West Indies could not endure the hot and pestilential air, and, after much loss of life, without any fighting, the undertaking was abandoned and the Ashanti forces also retired. Ten years later, a final decision of our old quarrel was reached in the application of military force directed with consummate judgment and skill. The Ashanti king, Koffee Kalkalli (or Kari-Kari), claimed payment of a tribute formerly allowed to him by the Dutch, and refused to evacuate territory ceded to us by the recent arrangement with Holland. In December, 1872, an army of 40,000 men started from Coomassie to invade the British protectorate, and crossed the boundary-river Prah on January 29th, 1873. Our allies, the Fantis, were twice defeated, in April and June, and then the invaders marched to attack Elmina. In front of that coast-fortress they were well beaten by our seamen, marines, and colonial forces, all commanded by Colonel (the late Sir Francis) Festing. Captain (the late Sir John) Glover was then sent to the east of our territories, to organize the tribes with a view to a flank-attack on the Ashanti kingdom.

In the meantime, the Government in London had resolved to strike an effective blow at the native hostile power in that region. Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley has been already seen by us at work in Egypt and the Soudan, and will be met hereafter, in Canadian history, in the Red River expedition of 1870 which founded his military fame. It was above all things needful to select the comparatively cool season for operations in the climate which had, in a previous war, proved to be the Ashanti king's most powerful ally. In December, 1873, the British expedition arrived off the coast. Some of our best regiments, including the 42nd Highlanders (the famous "Black Watch") and the 23rd Welsh Fusiliers, had been chosen for the enterprise. A road to the Prah had been taken in hand by a body of men under a volunteer, Lieutenant Gordon, of the 93rd Highlanders, but it was not yet completed, and the troops were sent to sea again for a cruise in pure air until all was ready. Prior to this, Sir Garnet, invested with power as "Administrator of the Gold Coast" and commander-in-chief, had driven the Ashantis back towards the Prah, using for that purpose West Indian troops, seamen, and marines, and native levies that included the brave and faithful Houssas (Haussas), a Soudanese people of Mohammedan faith, now largely employed as armed constabulary on the Gold Coast. Towards the end of December the British regiments were landed, and on January 20th, 1874, Wolseley and the advance crossed the Prah. The Ashanti king took a serious view, as it seemed, of his position, and sent in some missionaries and other captives to our camp with overtures for peace. Sir Garnet, distrusting his sincerity, dismissed his envoys and moved forward through the woods. It was here that the value of forethought, neglecting no detail tending to safety and success, was triumphantly shown. The "cool" season had still an ample store of fever for the European troops, 1500 strong, who should neglect due precautions against the lurking dangers of water and air. They were traversing jungle in which the lofty trees, entwined and hung with a dense growth of creeping plants, created a twilight where the air reeked with a steam like that seen and felt in a freshly-watered hot-house. Sanitary care had provided pocket-filters for purifying all the water drunk by the men, and every soldier, under his officer's eye, took his daily dose of quinine. Practical skill of a high order was needed to cope with foes

who, in force unknown, dogged the march in the woods around, and awaited the moment for attack in odds which proved to be ten to one. The British commander had taken with him some light field-guns, and some rocket-batteries served by the men of a small naval brigade. At every point of the marching column, in front and flanks and rear, some of this artillery was ready to pour its fire into the thickets, and special care was used, by night and day, against surprise. On January 31st, the enemy's main body made a stand near a place called Amoaful. All sides of our little army were attacked at once by showers of bullets from old-fashioned muskets, the incessant stream of fire being due, as it was found, to each warrior being provided with two or three guns, deftly loaded by women crouching in the rear. It was well for the gallant invaders that the powder used by the Ashantis, purchased from dishonest dealers on the coast, was so lacking in propulsive power that a bullet could only inflict a real wound when it was fired at very close quarters, within one or two score yards. Our men, kneeling or lying down, smitten by scores under the leaden hail, unable to see one of their assailants, maintained a steady swift fire from the well-depressed muzzles of their breech-loaders, and wrought such havoc that some of the Ashanti prisoners piteously complained that "the British did not fight fair, in firing without loading". It was thus only that they could account for the slaughter made by so small a force. In this battle of Amoaful, at one moment, in the front of the fight, where the bush swarmed with the greatest host of foes, the nerves even of the Highlanders seemed to be shaken as they fell fast under the fire. Shells from the guns, and rockets, were brought to bear, and the enemy were specially terror-stricken by the frightful scream and rush of the latter missiles. The word for a charge with the cold steel was given. The Highland rush drove the enemy in flight over some open ground where they fell in hundreds before the rifles, and the fighting at all parts of the column ended in our complete victory. Even then, however, the brave Ashantis disputed, for four days of less severe struggle, the advance to their capital, Coomassie. The place was occupied on the evening of February 4th, and again the royal state-umbrella was captured. The king, who had fled to the bush, declined at first to come to terms, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, anxious to bring his men back to the coast before the rainy season

THE CHARGE OF THE HIGHLANDERS AT THE BATTLE OF AMOAFUL.

The King of Ashanti having become insolent and troublesome, the British Government determined in 1873 to send a punitive expedition to the Gold Coast, with Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley in command. One of the great difficulties encountered by this force was the dense jungle through which it had to pass, where the tangled creepers hung from every tree, and the hot air was thick with steam. Moreover, the enemy in unknown force dogged the advancing column in the woods around, awaiting a favourable moment for attack. At last, on January 31, 1874, the Ashantis made a stand at a place called Amoaful. On all sides the British column was smitten by a shower of bullets, each native warrior being provided with two or three guns, which were loaded by women in the rear. Our men dropped by scores, and as the woods seemed to swarm with unseen foes, there was, at first, a feeling of panic among the troops. The guns, however, came into play, and soon the bursting shells and screaming rockets caused the terror-stricken Ashantis to fall back. Finally, a charge of the Highland regiments across a piece of open ground, where the enemy fell in hundreds, achieved complete victory for the British troops.

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THE HIGHLAND CHARGE AT THE BATTLE OF AMOAFUL.

began, started his return-march on February 6th. The engineers set fire to the town as the troops quitted it, and a visible memorial of utter defeat was thus left behind. The Ashanti king seems to have been most impressed by the famous flank-march made by Captain Glover. That officer, coming from the east with a body of Houssas and other natives, met with little resistance, and on February 12th he passed through the smoking ruins of Coomassie. The appearance of this new and unexpected foe at once brought Koffee Kalkalli to a sense of his powerless condition. On the following day, envoys were sent forward in haste to overtake Wolseley, and a peace was concluded on satisfactory terms. The Ashanti king renounced all claims on the British protectorate; he undertook protection for traders, and the abandonment of his abominable human sacrifices; he promised to maintain a good road from his capital to the Prah, and to furnish an indemnity of 50,000 ounces of gold. An instalment of 1000 ounces was paid forthwith. The British commander, declining any title, received a pecuniary reward of £25,000, and Captain Glover became K.C.M.G. No serious trouble came from the Ashantis for many years after the conclusion of this admirably devised and most successful campaign. In 1881 some Ashanti envoys arrived at Elmina demanding the surrender of a certain prince who had escaped to our territory. They brought with them the golden axe, an emblem believed by the Governor to convey a threat of war. Some preparations were made, and the arrival of reinforcements at once brought the Ashantis to terms. Their ambassadors were received by the new Governor, Sir Samuel Rowe, on the frontier at Prahsu, and the matter ended with an apology, the payment of 2000 ounces of gold, and the surrender of the golden axe, which was dispatched to England as a present to the Queen. At the close of 1895, a dispute with King Prempeh, who became ruler of Ashanti in 1888, with regard to the non-fulfilment of the treaty of 1874 as to the cessation of human sacrifices and of the capture of men to hold as slaves, caused the dispatch from England of another expedition when Lord Wolseley, as successor to the Duke of Cambridge, had just become Commander-in-Chief. The Colonial Office in London required the Ashanti king to receive a British Resident at his capital, Kumassi (Coomassie), and his refusal was one ground of British action.

The troops sent out to Cape Coast Castle, under the command of Sir Francis Scott, went to the front in December, 1895, and January, 1896, and crossed the Prah on the way to Kumassi, the officers including Prince Henry of Battenberg and Prince Christian Victor, eldest son of Prince and Princess Christian. No foe was encountered on the march, the country being entirely deserted by the fighting-men of King Prempeh, under whose rule Kumassi, which means "the death place", had been a constant scene of horrible bloodshed. A service to humanity was rendered when, without the firing of a shot, British power swept this system away on January 20th, 1896. The king, awaiting his foes in his capital, surrounded by his chiefs, made a humble submission, "kneeling on a biscuit-box", to Mr. (the late Sir W. E.) Maxwell, Governor of the Gold Coast, and was removed as a prisoner to Cape Coast Castle, along with his nearest relatives and three petty kings. The Fetish houses and groves were destroyed, and the expedition then returned. There were many cases of malarial fever among the troops, and the royal family and the nation had to lament the loss, from that malady, of Prince Henry of Battenberg, who died at sea on board H.M.S. *Blonde*, on his way from Cape Coast Castle to Madeira. The husband of the Queen's youngest daughter, Princess Beatrice, had in the course of his ten years of married life greatly endeared himself to the sovereign and to all who knew him, and it was a sincere and manly desire to do something for his adopted country which took him away to the region where pestilential air brought him to a death not less honourable than that of a soldier on the field of battle. Ashanti was placed under British protection, with a Resident at Kumassi, and some effects of this change of rule from King Prempeh to Queen Victoria were quickly visible. The people, delivered from a bloodthirsty and drunken tyrant, welcomed their new masters. Missionaries were soon installed at Kumassi; the country was opened up to trade. A firm hold on the capital was secured by the erection of a fort of stone and brick in the centre of the town, with corner-turrets mounting Maxim guns, and with an open space of 200 yards on every side, to be always kept clear of trees and buildings. A fine solid road was made between Kumassi and the coast, with "rest-houses" at four points on the route, and the country was, for the first time, brought within the sphere of civilization.

The government of the Gold Coast territory was settled in 1874, 1883, and 1886. Finally separated, as regards rule, from Sierra Leone, it became the "Gold Coast Colony", with a Governor aided by an Executive and Legislative Council. The former consists of the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Queen's Advocate, the Treasurer, and the Inspector-General of Constabulary. The latter includes the Executive, with the addition of the Chief Justice and two unofficial members nominated by the Crown. For judicial affairs, there are districts, each with a commissioner invested with magisterial powers, subject to appeal to the Supreme Court, which tribunal also controls the settlement of disputes between natives according to native law. Domestic slavery, not affected by the statute of 1807, was abolished within the Protectorate by colonial ordinances of 1874.

The chief products of the region are palm-oil, palm-kernels, india-rubber, and gold. The fruit of the oil-palm, which does not grow near the coast, is brought from inland on the heads of native carriers and by canoes down the Volta River. The oil, obtained by boiling in water the bruised pulp of the orange-coloured fruit, is consumed by the natives as butter; the exported article, as is well known, is used to an enormous extent in the manufacture of candles, soap, and lubricants for railway-carriage wheels, and for other purposes. The fruit-kernels have been, of late years, very largely sent to Marseilles, Hamburg, and other ports for crushing which extracts a valuable oil, while the residue is used for making oil-cake. The india-rubber trade is of recent origin, and has increased from an export of 64 cwts. in 1882 to about 30,000 cwts., with an annual value of over £320,000. We may mention, by the way, that in one year monkey-skins were exported to a value exceeding £15,000, and that some ivory, copra (broken and dried cocoanut kernels), gum-copal, and valuable native woods are also articles of foreign trade. The gold industry is one which has been revived, in the way of regular mining, since 1889, five companies being now at work. Its past importance is indicated by the name assigned to this region by the early traders. The Portuguese, the French, the English, and the Dutch obtained large quantities between the fifteenth and the eighteenth centuries. During the nineteenth century the value of the metal imported into this country is computed at 5½ millions sterling. The natives have shown the auri-

ferous nature of the soil in many parts by the amount which their rude appliances have unearthed. In small grains and nuggets mixed with gravel or red loam, and sometimes found in quartz, and in sand from the beds of streams, the rudest kind of crushing and washing made an annual average, in the six years inclusive from 1883 to 1888, of over £78,000 in value. The chief districts for gold are in the north-west and north. European capital and skill are now at work, and in 1890 the export from this source, the companies' mines, reached £33,000. Three-fourths of the whole Gold Coast trade is carried on with the United Kingdom, the rest being divided between the United States, Holland, Germany, and France. The exports, mainly of india-rubber (£322,000), palm-oil (£231,000), palm kernels (£93,000), and gold (£91,000), have a total value of about £880,000. The imports, consisting of cotton-goods, hardware, cooperage, alcohol, and sundries, approach a million sterling in value. The revenue, chiefly from customs, exceeds £230,000, with an expenditure, not increased by charge for any public debt, of £265,000. The legal currency is British coin, with Spanish, French, and United States gold coinage. The total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at the ports in 1895 was 1,053,366, of which British ships accounted for 744,615 tons.

There are two Government elementary schools at Accra and Cape Coast Castle, but religious teaching and secular instruction are mainly in the hands of Wesleyan, Roman Catholic, and Lutheran missionaries, aided by grants to the amount of over £2000: the whole number of pupils is about 7500. English is taught in all the higher classes, and in some schools instruction in handicrafts is given. The Basel Mission Society is specially active in the teaching of male and female pupils, and the services of masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths trained in its schools are in great request among European employers at various parts of the coast. In 1890, a Botanical Station was founded at Aburi, some distance inland from Accra, at a height of 1400 feet above the sea, near the Government Sanitarium. A curator from Kew Gardens there has charge of a small farm planted with cocoa, coffee, tobacco, cotton, jute, various spice-trees, eucalypti, fruit-trees, and divers useful plants, with the object of apprenticing native boys from the schools to gardening work, and teaching them how to develop the agricultural resources of the colony in raising new products for

export. There are no railways, and few regular roads, except in or near the towns; inland paths are kept open through the bush by chiefs paid for this service. A tolerable road, made by the troops in 1874, covers the 75 miles from Cape Coast Castle to Prahsu, and Accra and Aburi are also thus connected. There is a land postal-service for letters and telegrams between the chief towns along the coast, and the money-order system, and the advantages of the Postal Union and the parcels-post, are established with the United Kingdom. Four submarine cables connect the colony with England by way of Sierra Leone, Bathurst, and St. Vincent (Cape Verd Islands); with Lagos, the Niger, and the Portuguese and French settlements, to the east and south; and with Liberia to the west. The voyage from Europe, about 4000 miles (Liverpool to Accra), is performed by weekly steamers of the "British African" and "African Steamship" Companies, from Liverpool, Hamburg, Havre, and Antwerp, and from Hamburg by monthly steamers of the Woerman Line. The chief towns of Gold Coast Colony are Accra, Elmina, Addah, and Cape Coast Castle. *Accra*, the seat of government, lies on the coast almost in a longitudinal line with Greenwich. With a population of nearly 20,000, the town is now made fairly healthy by due attention to the water-supply and drainage, and has the principal share in the commerce above described. *Elmina*, on the coast between the mouth of the Prah and Cape Coast Castle, has about 11,000 people. *Addah*, far to the east, near to the mouth of the river Volta, may have about the same numbers, and *Cape Coast Castle*, a little west of 1° west longitude, with about 12,000 population, lies in a hollow, defended by the great castle near the water's edge, and by three small forts on the hills behind, one of them serving as a signal-station and lighthouse. Much of the trade in palm-oil is done from this port. Other smaller coast-towns are Annamaboe, 10 miles east of Cape Coast Castle; Dixcove, west of the Prah mouth; Winnebah, and Quittah (Kwitta), the last being situated far to the east, near the borders of the German Protectorate.

Lagos, in recent history, had an evil name in connection with the slave-trade, and it was for refusal to assist in the suppression thereof that British troops, in 1851, expelled the native king. Treaty-promises made by his two successors were not observed, and in 1861 the native ruler was forced to yield his territory to the

British crown in return for a yearly pension of £1000. Made a separate colony in 1863, and, three years later, a dependency of Sierra Leone, then, in 1874, incorporated with the Gold Coast colony, Lagos again became, in 1886, as it remains, a distinct Crown Colony, with a government precisely like that of the Gold Coast, save that the Legislative Council has one more unofficial nominated member. Probably discovered, and certainly named, by the Portuguese, after the little seaport and fishing-town on their own southern coast, the island of Lagos, with an area of nearly 4 sq. miles, lies midway between 3° and 4° E. longitude. This and Iddo Island, the original British settlements, formed a nucleus increased by the annexation, between 1862 and 1885, of neighbouring districts and petty native kingdoms, to the present area, with protectorate, of 1071 square miles, stretching nearly from 2° to 6° E. long., and bounded on the south-east by the river Benin, dividing Lagos colony from our Niger Protectorate. The population is estimated at 100,000, mostly negroes, with about 200 Europeans. In religion, the natives are chiefly still heathens, though the Christians may amount to 6000, and the Mohammedans to double that number. Education, mainly conducted, as on the Gold Coast, by missionary efforts, with Government inspection and grants, has been so far successful that one-fourth of the natives speak or understand English. The Church Missionary Society, very active in this region, supports most of the Anglican clergy, who are subject to the Bishop of Sierra Leone.

The town of *Lagos* claims commercial importance in being the largest place on the West African coast, with a population of 35,000, and in having the only safe harbour for 1000 miles, with a bar that needs some care in navigation, but admitting vessels drawing up to 12 feet of water. As regards communications for trade with the interior and along the coast away from the sea, the absence of roads is the less felt owing to the great facilities given by creeks, lagoons, and rivers extending in all directions. The climate and products of the colony resemble those of the Gold Coast, the palm-oil of Lagos being esteemed the best in the market. The fishing-industry is very active, and includes in its catch creatures so diverse in size and character as shrimps and sharks. Shrimps, greatly esteemed by the native chiefs of the interior, are caught in vast quantities by means of bamboo-baskets fastened to poles along the

shore, into which receptacles the incoming tide sweeps the prey. The sharks, numerous both at the river-mouths and far up the stream, are taken both for eating fresh and for curing. The handicrafts, besides the making of palm-oil, are the weaving of cloth in cotton and native grasses; and the making of mats, bamboo-furniture, boats, pottery, and bricks. The telegraphic, steamship, and postal communications are the same as those given for the Gold Coast, but Lagos has, in addition, frequent sailing-vessels to and from the United States and Brazil, and steam-communication with the latter country. The currency is the same as that on the Gold Coast, and there is a Government savings-bank, with deposits of over £5000 at the close of 1890. A branch of the African Banking Company has lately been opened. The commerce of Lagos colony, largely carried on with Germany as well as with the United Kingdom, has a total value of about £1,150,000. The exports (£985,000) include palm-kernels to the value of £320,000, and palm-oil to more than two-thirds that amount, with some ivory and gum-copal. The imports of cotton-goods are worth over £274,000; alcoholic spirits, £106,000, and tobacco, over £25,000. The revenue, from customs-duties on alcoholic drinks, tobacco, salt, arms and ammunition, with a 4-per-cent *ad valorem* charge on most other imports, exceeds £142,000; the expenditure is about £144,000.

The history of *Gambia*, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, has been given in a former section of this work. We are now taken westwards and northwards to the most westerly part of the continent, where the great river Gambia, after a journey estimated at 1400 miles, overflowing its banks in the lower course, like the Nile, during the rainy season, and leaving a deposit of fertilizing mud, and, after widening to an estuary 27 miles across, contracting at its mouth to little more than 2 miles, enters the Atlantic in about 13½ degrees north latitude, and about 16½ degrees west longitude. From June to November the stream is navigable, for vessels of 150 tons, up to Barraconda, a distance of 400 miles from the sea. The British colony proper, with an area of about 70 square miles, includes St. Mary's Island, a sandbank 3½ miles long by 1¼ broad, at the river-mouth; some territory on the adjacent mainland; and MacCarthy's Island, about 180 miles up the river. All these lower waters, from Georgetown (MacCarthy's

Island) to the sea, are under British control, and the "protectorate" makes up an area of 2700 square miles, having a total population of 50,000, mostly negroes, with about threescore resident Europeans. The population of the British settlement somewhat exceeds 15,000, and includes, in religion, about 2400 Christians and 5300 Mohammedans. Gambia, after being, since 1807, first attached to Sierra Leone, then independent, and then again attached to what were called the "West Africa Settlements", became a distinct colony in 1888, governed by an "Administrator", assisted by the usual Executive and Legislative Councils, the latter including three nominated unofficial members. Friendly relations are maintained with the surrounding native tribes, the Mandingos and others, and the chiefs are subsidized for preserving peace among the natives and keeping open the trade-routes from inland which, save a metalled road from St. Mary's Island across a narrow creek to Cape St. Mary on the mainland, are the only roads in the settlement. The climate is stated to he "fairly healthy during the dry months" (October to June), with a rainfall of 44 inches, and a mean temperature of 82°, ranging from 60° to 104°.

The chief products of the colony and inland districts are ground-nuts, hides, bees'-wax, cotton, rice, maize, india-rubber and palm kernels, the staple being ground-nuts for the extraction of oil. This vegetable production, also called ground-bean, pea-nut, and earth-nut, is the fruit of an annual plant of the leguminous order, growing its pod in the air, and then, by a natural motion of the stalk, forcing it 3 or 4 inches into the earth, where it ripens. A very sweet oil, not becoming rancid, but improving with age, is obtained by pressure from the seeds or beans in the pods. In 1895, these nuts, exported to the value of about £56,000, chiefly to France, with rubber worth nearly £19,000, were the chief item in the total of £93,000. The only handicrafts are the making of vegetable oils, the weaving of native cotton-cloths, boat-building, and brick-making. The import-trade, with a value, in 1895, of £97,000, is chiefly carried on with Great Britain, and consists mainly of cotton-goods, hardware, spirits, tobacco, salt, and gunpowder. A considerable entrepôt traffic in these and other articles is done with the neighbouring French settlements. Import-duties, except on firearms, are very light, producing an annual revenue of over £15,000, increased by minor items to about £21,000,

against an expenditure of £28,900. Christian education is in the hands of Anglican, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic missionaries, and the Mohammedans have also several schools. Telegraph-cables connect the capital, *Bathurst*, on St. Mary's Island, having a population of 6000, with Europe and with all the chief points on the West African coast. "British and African" line steamers run from London every three weeks, and mail-steamers from Liverpool call every fortnight. There is also regular sea-communication with Bordeaux and with Germany.

The origin of *Sierra Leone*, as a British settlement, has been already given. In 1807, after the abolition of the slave-trade in our possessions, the rights of the Sierra Leone Company were transferred to the Crown, and the place became largely peopled by captured cargoes of slaves carried off from almost every tribe on the western and south-western coasts of Africa, and now made free residents in our new settlement. The nucleus of the existing colony was a peninsula, 26 miles long and 12 broad, with an area of 300 square miles, extending westwards to Cape Sierra Leone, lying in 8½ degrees N. lat., and 13° 18′ W. long. This territory is bounded on the south by the sea, and on the north by the Sierra Leone estuary, the lowest part of the river Rokelle. The land rises, four miles from the river-mouth, into a chain of hills 1700 feet in height, with Sugar Loaf Mountain, 3000 feet, as a culminating point, the whole territory being covered with dense vegetation. Successive purchases and annexations of native possessions have extended the colony, a little to the north, and far to the south-east until, bounded on the north by French settlements, and on the south by the Republic of Liberia, it stretches along 180 miles of coast, with an area of about 4000 square miles, and a population (1891) of nearly 75,000, including 210 resident whites. The "protectorate", or territory under immediate British control and influence, is estimated at 15,000 square miles, with a population of 180,000. Sherbro Island, at about the centre of the coast-line, and a number of other smaller islands, are included in our territory. After being connected at various times, as we have seen, with the Gambia and the Gold Coast settlements, Sierra Leone became, in 1888, a separate colonial state, ruled by a Governor with the usual Executive and Legislative Councils, three of the latter body being natives nominated by the Crown.

The scenery of the Sierra Leone peninsula has all the beauty afforded by masses of evergreen foliage on the huge trees which cover the undulating hills. The soil is good for tillage, and there is an ample supply of pure fresh water. The climate, very hot and very moist, with malaria produced by the exhalations from the dank vegetation of mangrove swamps, is proverbially unhealthy for European constitutions, but Sierra Leone no more deserves, if no less, the style of "White Man's Grave" than any of the neighbouring regions on the West African coast. Much of the mortality for European residents is due to lack of sanitation and of care as regards exposure to bad air and indulgence in alcoholic liquors. Nothing more, however, than a fair degree of health can be expected by white men in a region where the temperature ranges from 64 to 100 degrees in the shade, and the rainy season, lasting from May till October, gives an annual downfall of 144 to 170 inches.

The native population is remarkable for the mixture of negro-races which it presents, and also for the superiority of mental and moral character which has been, in many cases, developed amongst them. The census gives half the negroes as "Liberated Africans and their descendants", the variety of race in whom has been noticed above. A high authority declares that "many of these indigenous West African races who are under Her Majesty's rule are superior in intelligence, enterprise, and integrity to any of our negro fellow-subjects in South Africa or the West Indies". Sir H. H. Johnston, Imperial Commissioner for British Central Africa, then names, as instances of "admirable and useful recruits to civilized society" hence obtained, such men as Bishop Crowther, Archdeacons Crowther and Johnson, Samuel Lewis, and other distinguished divines, lawyers, and Government-officials who have shown themselves to be at all points equal to well-trained whites. One of the highest products of the negro-family of mankind was, beyond doubt, the late Missionary Bishop of the Niger territory, Samuel Adjai Crowther. Born in 1812, with the native name Adjai, in the kingdom of Dahomey, and carried off as a slave in the year of Queen Victoria's birth, he was rescued by a British cruiser three years later (1822), and landed at Sierra Leone. The lad of ten years, trained in religious and secular matters by a missionary at Bathurst, became a Christian in 1825, and took his new name from that of a London vicar. He had charge of a mission-

school in early manhood, and, visiting London in 1842, was ordained in the Anglican Church by Bishop Blomfield, and, returning to West Africa, worked with great ability and zeal in the mission-field. His consecration as Bishop was accompanied by the conferring of the honorary degree of D.D. in the University of Oxford. Bishop Crowther's chief literary work has been the translating of the Bible into the Yoruba language, that of the country lying, with a population estimated at 2 millions, to the north-east of Dahomey, between our Lagos colony and the Niger Company's territories. The advanced state of education in Sierra Leone is another proof of what is above claimed for the West African negroes. The natives well appreciate the advantages offered by Europeans. The Government system of inspection and grants was established in 1882, and we find ten years later that without compulsion, and with payment of fees, eighty-five elementary schools contain nearly 10,000 pupils, and that six high schools, including three for girls, supply secondary instruction. These institutions are chiefly maintained by the Wesleyan and the Church Missionary Societies. The C. M. S. has also a training-college at Fourah Bay, near Freetown, founded in 1828, and affiliated in 1876 to the University of Durham. The clerks in the Government service, and some of the higher officials, are natives. On a lower side, the peculiar intellectual character of the Sierra Leone negroes is shown in their neglect of tillage for trade. Devoted to the work of store-keeping, or to hawking and bartering goods throughout the settlement, and for a long distance inland, the negroes of this British colony are found acting as middlemen in the Niger traffic, and in every trading-centre of West Africa. The improvement of commerce with the producing inland-districts depends upon the degree in which the British rulers employ force to restrain inter-tribal warfare which, mainly carried on for purposes of general plunder and slave-catching, has in past years reduced large neighbouring territories to a state of devastation. At the present time, treaties exist with many of the inland chiefs by which, in return for pay, they undertake to keep open the bush-roads and to protect traders. The only handicrafts are boat-building, tanning, mat-making, and the weaving of native cloths. Large canoes are made from single logs of some of the magnificent trees, which include ebony, ironwood, cedar, and oak.

The products of the soil, within the colony, are of trifling value,

being confined to a little ginger for export, and to yams, cassava, sweet-potatoes, and other articles of food, grown on little plots of land for home-consumption. Poultry are plentiful, and the markets have a good supply of fish, but the beef and mutton come from the interior, with the other productions, derived from slave-labour, which make up the exports of Sierra Leone. That trade, in 1895, had a value exceeding £452,000, chiefly in palm-kernels, india-rubber, palm-oil, beni-seed, ground-nuts, copal, hides, and kola-nuts. Beni-seed, the *Sesamum Indicum* or til-seed of India, yields a valuable oil used for the same purposes as that of the ground-nut already described. Nearly the whole export is sent to France, which country, along with Italy, uses the best qualities of ground-nut oil for the adulteration of olive-oil, while Holland employs it in the making of "butterine". Inferior oil from ground-nuts is used for lubricating machinery, and the lowest quality for soap and coarse illumination. Nearly all the india-rubber goes to the British Isles, one-sixth of whose whole import of caoutchouc is derived from her West African possessions. Kola-nuts, or Guru Nuts, are the seeds of a tree indigenous to Africa south of 7½ degrees N. lat. In 1865 it was discovered that they contained an alkaloid like that of tea, coffee, and maté or Paraguay tea. The natives chew the nuts to prevent hunger, thirst, sleepiness, and fatigue. In European commerce they are used for mixing with chocolate, and for making various preparations for which medicinal value is claimed. The people of the Soudan and other dwellers in the distant interior import this nut from Sierra Leone by way of the Gambia. The imports of the colony, in 1895, exceeded the value of £427,000, mainly consisting of cotton-goods, spirits, hardware, provisions, haberdashery, gunpowder, and tobacco. The revenue, in the above year, was nearly £98,000, derived to the extent of £80,000 from light import-duties on a few articles, including a 5-per-cent *ad valorem* charge. There is a public debt of £50,000, payable between 1896 and 1898; the expenditure, £96,000 in 1895, shows a satisfactory annual surplus. The West African Bank has a branch at Freetown, and Government savings-banks contain deposits to the amount of £34,000. The internal communication is chiefly by the many lagoons and streams. Cable-telegrams reach Europe by way of Bathurst, and other ocean wires communicate with the rest of the West African coast. Steamers from

Liverpool reach the colony weekly in about fifteen days, by way of Madeira, and frequent steam-ships pass to and from Marseilles, Hamburg, Havre, Lisbon, and Algiers.

Freetown, the capital, lying four miles up the Sierra Leone estuary, has the finest harbour on all the West African coast, admitting ships of the largest size, and contains a population exceeding 30,000. Its commercial importance and excellent position have caused it to be made a second-class coaling-station for the Imperial navy, defended by batteries armed with heavy guns. The land-forces of the colony consist of 800 men of the West India Regiments, whose African head-quarters are at Freetown, with some artillery and engineers, and an armed constabulary of 570 men for frontier-service. In religious affairs, the Anglican Church, which employs many native clergy, is governed by the Bishop of Sierra Leone. The Wesleyan Methodists are strong in numbers and zeal, and the census of 1891 gives the number of "Protestants" at nearly 41,000, with a few hundred Catholics, and over 7000 Mohammedan negroes. The whole commerce of the United Kingdom with her West African colonies, according to the Board of Trade returns for 1895, reached a value of over 2¾ millions, in which British produce and manufactures figured for about £1,084,000. The tonnage cleared at all the ports was about 3 millions, of which nearly 2¼ millions of tons were British shipping.

The *Niger Territories* was the name until 1899 officially assigned to a region whose area is estimated at half a million square miles, with a population which is guessed at as from 20 to 35 millions, situated on the middle and lower courses of the great river which, after a course of 2600 miles, under the names of Joliba and Quorra at different parts, falls into the Gulf of Guinea 200 or 300 miles south-east of Lagos, after forming one of the most remarkable mangrove-covered deltas in the world. This vast territory and "sphere of influence", including the great native "empire" of Sokoto and the kingdom of Borgu, was under the control of the Royal Niger Company, which received its charter in 1886. The Company's territorial limits were settled by agreements concluded in 1886, 1890, and 1893 with the French and German Governments, and by many previous separate treaties made with native states and tribal chiefs. To the north and the east the Company's territories were respectively bounded by the French

and German spheres of influence. The coast-line of the British territory extends along the Gulf of Guinea for about 120 miles, between the Forcados and the Brass Rivers, bounded east and west by the Oil Rivers Protectorate. Great commercial advantages ought to accrue from our presence and power in regions rich in agricultural and other resources such as have been already seen in our account of West Africa. In 1896 the exports of gums, hides, india-rubber, ivory, palm-oil and palm kernels, and many minor products, had a value of £508,000. The town of *Asaba*, 70 miles beyond Abo, at the head of the Niger delta, is the capital of the territories, containing the usual public buildings, civil, military, and judicial, with a botanical garden established under the enterprising policy which has already started considerable plantations of cocoa and coffee. The varied imports include textile fabrics of silk, cotton, and wool, hardware and earthenware, tobacco and salt. It is gratifying to learn that the trade both in gunpowder (chiefly used in the interior for slave-raids) and in alcohol has been much lessened by the heavy duties imposed. Salt, guns, and tobacco also pay duty, but all other imports enter free of taxation. The importation of spirits into regions north of 7 degrees north latitude, in other words, into most of the territory, is absolutely prohibited. Many settlements exist up the course of the Niger and its chief tributary, the Binuë, traffic being maintained by a fleet of 30 or 40 steamers plying between the coast-port *Akassa*, where the Company have repairing-yards and engineering-works, and the Boussa Rapids on the Middle Niger, in one direction, and *Ribago*, 450 miles up the Binuë, in another. *Lokoja*, at the junction of the Niger and Binuë, is the head-quarters of the military force, consisting of about 1000 Houssas (Haussas), armed with Snider rifles, and commanded by British officers. Various districts have each a police-magistrate with a body of constabulary. The region, under the control and orders of the Council in London, was locally managed by an Agent-General, as executive chief, a chief-justice, a principal medical officer, and the commandant of the troops. From Brass and Bonny there is cable-communication with Lagos, and thence with other parts of the West African coast and with Europe. Steamers run regularly every three weeks to and from Liverpool.

Early in 1897, the Niger Company was at war with the Sultan

of Nupé, one of the most powerful chiefs of the Fulahs, Mohammedan conquerors from the north who held a despotic sway over the Pagan tribes of the interior within the Company's sphere of influence. The Fulah emirs had been cruelly raiding by slave-hunts the subject-populations bound to the Company by hundreds of treaties, under which they can claim protection in return for freedom of trade. It was resolved to give a lesson to the ruler of Nupé, the boldest of these aggressors, who had crossed the Niger, from the south-west, to Kabba, in defiance of the treaties, and had made that place a raiding-centre. The Company's campaign was carefully planned by Sir George Taubman Goldie, K.C.M.G., president of their council in London, a man whose administrative ability, enterprise, and resource have placed him high on the list of pioneers of British civilization, and he took a personal and leading share in the operations, aided by officers lent by the Imperial government. The base of operations was Lokoja, and the chief object of the expedition was the capture of Bida, the Sultan's capital and chief stronghold, about seventy miles to the north, and on the east side of the Niger. The troops employed were the Haussa levies in the Company's service, with white officers in the proportion of one to every twenty men. Every precaution that skill, experience, and forethought could suggest was taken, the stores including blue lights to burn in case of night-attacks, and barbed wire to check the rush of the Nupé cavalry. On January 6th, the land-force, consisting of 520 soldiers and a thousand carriers, started from Lokoja through the bush, commanded by Major Arnold, on the way to the great camp of the Fulahs at Kabba. At Sura, half-way to the point aimed at, a permanent fortified post for reserve-stores was established, and when the advance was resumed by the main body in forced marches, ten thousand of the enemy broke up in terror, leaving the Kabba camp to be destroyed. The southern part of the Nupé territory was thus freed from the slave-raiding which had continued unchecked for many years. The Company's flotilla was at the same time engaged in seizing the enemy's canoes and blocking the crossings of the Niger, so as to cut off retreat from Bida to the west. The Nupé people, so long oppressed by the Fulahs, made common cause with their deliverers, and cut to pieces the panic-stricken fugitives from Kabba, and the flotilla, on January 14th,

drove the last of this body of Fulahs from Shonga, a riverside stronghold, and destroyed the town. A few days later, Fulah power in the regions to the west of the Niger came to an end in the taking of Ladi, which was burnt along with vast stores. Twelve hundred slaves, mostly elderly men, were there rescued, the enemy having taken the women and young children, youths and maidens, away to Bida.

Major Arnold then formed a column of 600 Haussas, with six Maxim-guns, five seven-pounders, and some nine- and twelve-pounder Whitworths, and marched on Bida, a town with a population of about eighty thousand. On January 25th the enemy's advance post, twelve miles from the capital, was driven in, with the loss to them of many men slain and captured. The decisive struggle came on the two following days. On January 26th, the enemy, composed of cavalry and foot, to the number of thirty thousand men, were found to be occupying a ridge between the British force and Bida. Cautious tactics were needed against odds so great, and the movements directed by Major Arnold and his fellow-officers were marked by consummate skill. The fighting, which lasted from sunrise until dark, began with the driving-in of outposts, from seven till nine. The Fulahs then threw forward strong brigades to move round the flanks, attack the guns, and envelop the rear. A square was formed, with Maxims at the corners, and the enemy's repeated charges were repulsed with terrific loss, the Haussas being under perfect control, and their fire-discipline equal to that of the best white troops. An advance was then made in square, supported by the guns, and an accurate, well-maintained fire was poured on the dense masses of the enemy's main body at a range of 1500 yards. Towards three o'clock the Fulahs began gradually to retire, and the arrival of the Whitworth guns, causing more heavy loss, hastened the movement. The only British officer killed was Lieutenant Thomson, of the Leicestershire Regiment, on special service with the Company. The engagement was renewed at seven o'clock on the following day, January 27th, the British force advancing in two half-squares, attended by the guns, against the enemy who covered the slopes in front of Bida, and presented a splendid sight in their picturesque eastern costumes. The Fulahs then closed in upon the square which had been formed by the union of the two halves, and about

twenty thousand men, cavalry and foot, surrounded it on all sides. Their force had been diminished by the withdrawal of two contingents whose emirs had been killed on the previous day by shells. The fire of the Maxims, with the rifle-volleys, kept the Fulahs at bay as the British force slowly advanced towards Bida. When a position commanding the town was reached, the enemy slowly retiring before the advance, a bombardment began from the Whitworth and other guns, and about noon a company of troops entered the place, which is about three miles square. After further shelling, from two till four o'clock, half of the Haussas were sent inside, and Bida was thus captured. The enemy had dispersed, after suffering enormous loss from the fire of the Maxims, the Emir of Nupé's brother and many other chiefs being severely wounded, while the casualties on the British side were confined to fifteen wounded Haussas. The strength of the enemy was utterly broken, and the chiefs and men fled for safety to the north. Ten cannon, many horses, rifles, muskets, and tons of gunpowder, were taken in the town, and the houses of the chiefs were destroyed, the mosques, however, being carefully preserved.

Bida, a place almost utterly unknown until the Niger Company, with Sir George Goldie as its Cortes or Pizarro, threw it open to the world, was found to be a most interesting town, with schools, charities, art-industries, and even some slaves who read and write. On January 31st Sir George Goldie visited a large number of natives, chiefly Haussas in race, at a great camp near the city, and made a speech assuring them of such safety in the Nupé territory that a woman or child should be able to pass unmolested from one end of the country to the other. Unbounded delight was expressed, and Sir George then received a deputation of chiefs and leaders of caravans, who expressed their gratitude for deliverance from Fulah domination and undertook to spread the news throughout Haussaland. An end was made of slave-raiding and slavery throughout the Niger Territories, and the decree abolishing the latter came into force on Diamond Jubilee Day. A new Emir of Nupé, entirely dependent on the Company, was set up, and in February, in order to follow up and emphasize the success obtained at Bida, an expedition was sent against Ilorin, the capital of the Yoruba state, on the west side of the Niger, whose rulers were known to be hostile to British influence, and favourable to the

Fulah cause. This great town was captured, after two days' fighting, with no casualties in the Company's force, and this memorable campaign thus ended. The triumph achieved by prudence, courage, tactical skill, discipline, and the deadly "Maxims" was the most important ever gained by Europeans in Western Africa. For the first time one of the Mohammedan kingdoms of the Sudan had been conquered, and a fine fertile territory, hitherto subject to slave-raiders, was made free for peaceful tillage and trade. The moral effect of the Niger Company's victory could not fail to be great and wide-spread in the Sudan.

The *Oil Rivers* or *Niger Coast Protectorate* is the last on our list of African possessions until the days of the South African War. The first name is derived from the staple product, in palm and other oils, of the deltaic region in which the several outlets of the Niger are intermingled with many seaboard streams. The coast-region, where the rivers Brass, Benin, Opobo, Quaebo, New Calabar, and Old Calabar are found, had been long frequented and inhabited by British traders before the Niger Company was formed. A century ago, the main purpose of their presence was the slave-trade; the earlier decades of the nineteenth century saw the institution and development of a large traffic in the vegetable products of the coast and inner country. For over fifty years, British missionaries have been active in the Calabar country, and the United Presbyterians have been successful in warring against pagan cruelty and superstition. The coast-lands are low, swampy, and flat, with the usual malarious climate of West Africa. In 1884, under various treaties made with native chiefs, a British protectorate was established over the district between Lagos colony and Yoruba on the north-west and the German boundary of Cameroons on the east. In 1891 the Protectorate was formally intrusted to the rule of an official who, as "Imperial Commissioner and Consul-General", has executive and judicial powers, the right of taxation, and the control of six vice-consuls, stationed on the several rivers. The Protectorate Force, consisting of 16 officers, and 450 men, armed with the Martini-Henry carbine and sword-bayonet, and a battery of four carriage-guns for bush-service and some "Maxims", was formed chiefly by the efforts of Captain Boisragon, commander of the Protectorate Constabulary, of distinguished service in the Nile expedition of 1884–85. In 1889

a Company, including most of the merchants trading in the Oil Rivers, was formed at Liverpool under the style of the "African Association". In the earliest days of 1897, the attention of the world was called to this region by a very tragical event. The country called Benin, lying between the Lower Niger and Dahomey, was formerly one of the most powerful kingdoms of West Africa, but had been broken up into several smaller states. The territory now recognized as Benin was ruled, at the time of this occurrence, by King Dvunami, an important personage, holding supreme power fettered by fetish customs, his capital Ubini (Benin city), about 25 miles inland east of Gwato, being the seat of a powerful theocracy of fetish-priests. Human sacrifices, as formerly in Ashanti and Dahomey, were very common, the usual mode of execution being by crucifixion or decapitation. The dense population dwells in a region covered with forest, except for occasional clearings, the roads being mere bush-paths. The King was putting obstacles in the way of trade with the interior, and had threatened death to any white men who attempted to visit him. It was resolved to send a "peaceful mission" to this truculent potentate, and the expedition left Sapele on January 2nd. In the absence of Major Gallwey, the Acting-Commissioner, a great mistake was made in the composition of this "mission". The body was too large for a peaceful purpose, and too small for defence in case of need. It included Mr. Phillips, Acting-Consul-General; Major Crawford, Deputy Commissioner; Captain Boisragon and his colleague Captain Maling; Mr. Locke and Mr. Campbell, of the consular staff; Dr. Elliot, the Medical Officer; Mr. Powis and Mr. Gordon, two British merchants; with two Government interpreters, some servants, and over 200 native carriers. Mr. Phillips persisted in the journey towards Benin in spite of a message from the King desiring him to postpone the matter for about a month, and then to come attended only by one native chief. On arriving at Gwato, after notice given to the chief or "headman" at that place, the white men found all ready for the accommodation of themselves and their large following, and Mr. Phillips next day pressed forward, though three King's messengers arrived and begged for a day's delay. The Gwato people seemed pleased to see the Europeans, and on January 3rd the expedition started for Benin. Moving forward in single file along the bush-path, the

doomed men came, about 4 o'clock in the afternoon, to a small gorge, the Europeans, headed by Mr. Phillips with his guide and interpreter, walking in front. As the head of the column rounded a corner, firing was heard, and it was quickly seen that they had fallen into an ambush. The carriers were being massacred in the rear, and the Europeans ran back in order to get their revolvers out of their boxes, but failed to do so. Mr. Phillips was shot dead at the outset, and the other white men, retiring slowly along the route by which they had come, were under fire on both sides at very close quarters. All were soon killed, except Mr. Locke and Captain Boisragon, who crept into the bush, both being wounded, and, after wandering for five days and nights, reached a waterside-market about twenty miles above Gwato, and were taken down stream in a canoe by a friendly native. A few carriers also escaped to the coast. Captain Boisragon and District-Commissioner Locke, the sole European survivors, had subsisted for over five days on bananas and the heavy dew on the leaves. All the slain Europeans were beheaded, and the finger-rings of Mr. Phillips were sent back by the King of Benin, an act which was supposed to indicate defiance of British power.

When the news of this atrocious outrage arrived at the Foreign Office, the Imperial government resolved on inflicting prompt and signal punishment. Admiral Rawson, commanding the Cape and West African squadron, organized and led the expedition, which consisted of 120 Marines from England, 250 men of the Protectorate Force, and a naval brigade in two divisions, each composed of 350 men, the whole body being provided with seven-pounder guns, rocket-tubes and Maxims. The boats of the squadron were used for conveyance up the Benin river to Warrigi (a few miles below Sapele), whence the main advance northwards on Benin was made. Vessels were also sent up the branch-river to Gwato, on the west of Benin, and a land-force to Sapoba, on the south-east, to divert the attention of the enemy from the main body. Under a heat of ninety-five degrees in the shade, the force left Warrigi on February 11th, and proceeded in boats up the Ologi creek to Ologbo, about 15 miles north of Warrigi. A landing was there made, covered by a hot fire from the Maxims, while the enemy shot fast from the dense bush. The town, nearly a mile from the beach, was occupied, as the enemy retreated before

the advancing troops. Meanwhile, Gwato had been taken with slight loss, after being shelled from the boats, and at Sapoba a strong force of well-armed natives was driven back, after an obstinate fight, in which Commander Pritchard, of H.M.S. *Alecto*, was killed. Some deaths from sunstroke occurred in the British force. The march from Ologbo on Benin, about 16 miles to the north-west, was made through almost impenetrable bush, where the enemy offered a fierce resistance, climbing the trees and firing down from the branches, happily with inaccurate aim. On February 18th the invaders were near enough to the city to make a final dash, and a column was formed which left camp at half-past six in the morning, and had to fight its way through foes briskly firing from cover. Five miles ahead, the British came on a strong stockade mounted with cannon. The troops sprang forward, and made their way inside with the help of gun-cotton, the enemy retiring before the charge. A mile further on, there was a clear space, and the seven-pounders were brought into action, while shells and rockets were sent screaming and whizzing towards the town. A brief halt was then made, to enable the rear-guard to close up, and then the whole force plunged again into thick bush, expecting a desperate encounter. In a few minutes, however, the men emerged from the narrow path into a broad avenue leading to Benin, flanked on each side by dense masses of undergrowth. This was the critical time of the contest. The enemy, mostly armed with breech-loaders, and perched on trees amid the thickest foliage, poured in a hot and well-aimed fire. The assailants—blue-jackets, marines, and Haussas of the Protectorate Force—went down the avenue at the double, loudly cheering, against a rattling fire from cannon, and a shower of rifle-balls from loop-holed houses and the shelter of tree-trunks. This splendid charge soon gave possession of the King's "compound" or palace-garden, and Admiral Rawson ordered "cease-fire" to sound, that the troops, exhausted both by the tremendous heat and through lack of full rations and allowance of water, might have a respite. Over forty men had been killed and wounded, and Dr. Fyfe, of the *St. George*, was shot dead as he was attending a severely injured officer. The utmost steadiness, gallantry, and cheerfulness under privation, were displayed by all ranks. No man had been able to wash for five days in the almost waterless country, and when

Benin was captured, a body of 300 carriers had to be sent, under escort, to a creek two miles away, for a supply of water.

Horrible scenes met the eyes of the victors. The whole city was reeking with human blood, and the bodies of many crucified and beheaded victims were found. The crucifixion-trees and the houses of the fetish-priests were at once destroyed, and by the capture of the city, and the flight of the enemy into the bush, one of the foulest dens of slaughter in one of the worst regions in Africa was for ever closed. The stores and kit of the murdered officers were found in the King's palace. The miscreant had, for the time, escaped inland beyond reach of pursuit. In March, many chiefs and priests came to Benin and made their submission, and the place was again inhabited by natives carrying on their usual pursuits, now without fear of becoming victims to murderous superstition. It was not until August that the King returned from his hiding in the bush and made his submission in Benin, prostrating himself in the dust before the British Resident. He seems to have cleared himself of direct responsibility for the massacre, and to have proved it to be due to his fetish-priests. He thus escaped a death-penalty, but he was taken down to the coast as a prisoner, and carried round, in fetters, to various points, and exhibited among the natives who had refused to believe in his being conquered and captured. The nature of the climate in this part of Africa was shown by the fact that, before the end of March, more than seven hundred cases of malarial fever, contracted during the expedition, had occurred on board the vessels of the squadron. Before the close of the year 1897, Benin had shown its entrance on a career of civilization by a fortnightly post to and from England, by a condition of perfect peace and order, in charge of a garrison of 100 Haussas with Maxims, seven-pounders, and a rocket-tube—and by the establishment of golf-links.

The coast-line of the Protectorate extends from Lagos to the Cameroons, with the exception of the Niger Territories portion, as we have seen, between the Forcados and Brass Rivers. The precise area and population cannot be given. The chief towns are *Old Calabar* (about 15,000 people), the seat of government, having schools and churches, founded by two Protestant missions; *Opobo*, near the mouth of the river so called; and *Bonny*, 8 miles from the sea on the Bonny river, with a station of the Church Missionary

Society. The traffic on the rivers is worked by launches and small steamers, which can ascend as far as Gwato, on the river of that name, a branch of the Benin river, and by the main stream can get up for about eighty miles from the sea to Sapele, where there are a Vice-consular station and barracks for sixty men. Communication with Europe is given by steamships of the "African", and "British and African" lines, running to Liverpool, Havre, and Hamburg, with a direct line from Liverpool to Accra and Old Calabar river. Commerce is largely carried on by exchange of European goods, through native traders who supply the shippers, for the up-country produce of the negro peoples. Above half the trade is done with Great Britain, the rest chiefly with Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Havre. The annual exports reach a value of £825,000, in palm-oil, palm kernels, ivory, india-rubber, ebony, gums, hides, indigo, and some dye-woods. The imports, to the value of £750,000, include cotton goods, hardware, spirits, tobacco, salt, guns and powder, rice, pottery, with beads and many fancy goods dear to the natives of those regions.

The commercial importance of the Oil Rivers territory lies in the fact that it is the centre of the palm-oil industry, which is the most valuable in West Africa. The oil is produced from the fruit of the *Elæis guineensis*, a tree of very extensive geographical distribution, from about 15° north of the equator to 35° south latitude. It is, however, cultivated only in certain districts; on the West Coast, chiefly near the villages. Attaining a height of 60 to 80 feet, it has a spreading crown of pinnate leaves, each about 15 feet long, the footstalks of which are armed with stout hooked spines. The extraction of the oil, which is reddish or orange in colour, with a scent like that of violets, involves the labour of bruising the fruit-pulp in wooden mortars, boiling in water, and careful skimming off after the oil, risen to the surface, has cooled. It is composed of about thirty-one parts of stearin and sixty-nine of olein. In warm countries the oil remains oil; in cooler climates, it assumes the form of butter. In the British Isles it is chiefly used by candle-makers, soap-makers, and manufacturers of grease for railway use. There are also many valuable medicinal plants, and the export of coloured woods for dyeing purposes, such as camwood or campwood, barwood, and redwood, is rising.

CHAPTER XIII.

The War in South Africa (1899–1900).

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western campaign —Advance for relief of Kimberley — Lord Methuen, his antecedents—Force under his command—His wise order to officers—Sharp fighting with enemy—Death of Colonel Keith-Falconer—Battle of Belmont—Boer positions stormed—Courage of British troops—Battle of Graspan (or Enslin)—Boers driven from positions — Brave conduct of Royal Marines and sailors — Death of Commander Ethelston and Captain Senior—The battle of Modder River—A fierce engagement—Boer hail of bullets—Lord Methuen wounded—Enemy's right flank turned—Boers retreat during night—Heavy loss on both sides—Arrival of British reinforcements — Fighting at Graspan Station — Lord Methuen firmly posted on Modder River—The disaster at Magersfontein — Losses of Highland Brigade—Death of General Wauchope and other officers—Scene at Wauchope's funeral—Succeeded by Hector Macdonald—The lull after the reverse—Positions of Methuen and his opponents — Colonel Pilcher's fine exploit near Douglas — Excellent conduct of Queenslanders and Canadians—The Orange Free State invaded.

The general character and the importance of the contest known as "The Boer War" have been dealt with in the opening chapter of this work. In order to give a clear and full account of the origin of this struggle for supremacy in South Africa, it is needful to go back for about half a century, to the days when the late "South African Republic" and "Orange Free State" were permitted, by short-sighted British colonial policy, to assume an independent existence. Both these states had their rise in the great "trek" or migration of 1836 and subsequent years, from the northern and eastern districts of Cape Colony, referred to above in the history of Natal. In February, 1848, Sir Harry Smith, governor of Cape Colony, issued a proclamation declaring the whole of the territory bounded on the south-west by the Orange River, on the north by the Vaal, and on the east by the Drakensberg Mountains, to be British territory, as "The Orange River Sovereignty". The Boer leader, Andries Pretorius, induced his followers to make an armed resistance, but they were severely defeated by Sir Harry Smith, in August, at the battle of Boom Plaats, midway between Bloemfontein and the Orange River, and the Boers who were opposed to British rule fled beyond the Vaal, their places being taken by British or other settlers from Cape Colony well disposed to British sway. By degrees a desire for self-rule among both British and Dutch settlers weakened the authority of the Cape government, and the home-government, rarely able, at that time, to do the right thing in colonial affairs, resolved on abandoning the territory, instead of retaining it with the concession of some form of self-rule. It

was thus that, in February, 1854, the "Orange Free State" arose. The measure was greatly opposed to public feeling in Cape Colony, and to that of many people in the territory, including some of the Dutch settlers, but the foolish and pernicious "Convention of Bloemfontein" was signed, in the face of all protests, by Sir George Clerk, a special commissioner despatched from home, and a fine region nearly as large as England was renounced within six years of its annexation.

The late South African Republic, popularly known as "The Transvaal", dated its brief political existence from 1852. When Natal and the Orange State were formed, the turbulent and irreconcilable Boers in all cases drifted beyond the Drakensberg and the Vaal. In their sullen spirit of isolation and causeless hatred of British sway, the Transvaal Boers were as bitterly hostile to the Dutch population whom they had left behind as they were to their late rulers. Pretorius, after his defeat, was living north of the Vaal, a proscribed man with a reward of two thousand pounds offered for his arrest. The danger to British authority arising from simultaneous wars with the Basutos and the Kafirs, and from a threatened alliance between the Boers and the able Basuto chief, Moshesh, induced Sir Harry Smith to reverse the sentence of outlawry. On January 17, 1852, that fatal document, the famous "Sand River Convention", was signed, and the independence of the Boers beyond the Vaal River was recognized, under certain conditions which must be carefully noted. Writing at a time when Boer treachery has become a byword, we shall cause surprise to none of our readers in recording that the early history of the Transvaal state was marked by gross and systematic violation of the clause in the Convention which laid down that "No slavery is or shall be permitted or practised in the country to the north of the Vaal River by the emigrant farmers". We may here remark that the independence of the two Boer republics was received by the people as a gift from Great Britain; as their only charter of existence; and that it was a recognition of the undisputed authority of that country over the whole of South Africa as far as the twenty-fifth parallel of south latitude, save in the Portuguese territory on Delagoa Bay. Independence was granted as an act of grace proceeding from a paramount Power, holding

a position of supremacy from the Cape northwards to the sphere of Portuguese influence.

The South African Republic started on its new political career with a population of about fifteen thousand "boers" or farmers in a land well suited for most kinds of tillage and for pastoral life. Little capacity for self-government was shown. There were four leading factions, each with its own executive head, and for a time there were four separate republics, a system resulting in virtual anarchy which drew to the territory all the rascals of South Africa, and gave the Transvaal a bad name for cruel treatment of the natives. Slaves, under the name of "apprentices", were from the first held by Boers of the Transvaal. Under this system, by an Act of 1856, natives, usually prisoners of war, were legally bound to work without payment, and were unable to change their masters without permission. In 1876, we find the excellent Khama, the Christian chieftain of Bechuanaland, seeking British protection against the cruelty of Boers coming into his country from the Transvaal, and selling his people and their children as slaves. A clergyman of the Dutch Church, in a work published at Utrecht in 1869, had described the working of the apprentice system as constituting "slavery in the fullest sense of the word". A German missionary, invited by President Burgers to report on the subject in 1875 declared that "slavery had existed since 1852 and been recognized and permitted by the government". The testimony of the great missionary and explorer, Dr. Livingstone, is to the same effect. In their frequent wars with the natives, the Boers of the Transvaal were, in the earlier years of their republic's history, little better than slave-raiders, perpetrating massacres of which their own accounts furnish ample and hideous details. The Sand River Convention, in another clause, bound the Boers of the new state to permit absolute freedom for traders and missionaries to travel and prosecute their business within the territory of the republic. This provision was no better observed by the people of the Transvaal than that concerning slavery. Dr. Livingstone's mission-station was attacked and plundered, he himself only escaping death by a fortunate accident. Five other mission-stations were broken up in the same way. Traders were fined for publishing descriptions of the routes for com-

merce, and a law was passed to prevent Englishmen and Germans from holding land. For many years after the Convention, it was the declared policy of the Boer leaders to cut off connection with the outer world and to isolate themselves from civilized intercourse, a fact in itself directly infringing one of the principal conditions of the treaty which gave the state its political existence.

In 1860, the four Boer republics, after conflict with each other and with the Orange Free State, agreed on union under one president, but civil war soon again broke out, and only in 1864 was the government of the "South African Republic" established, with Mr. Marthinus Pretorius as president, and the now famous Paul Krüger as commandant-general. A memorial of the period of four republics existed, until recent supersession by the Union Jack, in the "Vierkleur", or four-coloured Transvaal flag. The natives, partly emboldened by the quarrels among the Boers, and partly driven to desperation by the treatment which they received, had become unruly, and a powerful tribe inhabiting the mountains to the north, in the Zoutpansberg district, taxed all Krüger's efforts and those of his forces for four years, until a somewhat ignominious peace was patched up in 1868. Hostilities then broke out with the Baralongs on the western frontier. The piety of the Boer community was strongly manifested in the building of churches, and the presence of large numbers of ministers of religion whose flocks were ever at variance on trifles of doctrine or practice. In social and political affairs, the conspicuous matters were dense ignorance of books and of all things outside a narrow local circle; the lack of bridges over rivers, and the want of money in the public treasury for the erection of public offices and for the payment of the paltry salaries of officials. The material wealth of the country grew in flocks and herds, and in the produce of a fertile soil, and rude abundance reigned in the Boer farms. In 1871, President Pretorius, unable to cope with various difficulties, sought relief in submitting the western frontier question to British arbitration, and accepted an award made by Mr. Keate, the governor of Natal. This arrangement, assigning territory and independence to the Baralongs and other native tribes, further irritated the Boers by cutting off an important district

near the diamond-fields of Griqualand West, to which the Transvaal laid claim. An outcry of dissatisfaction caused the resignation of Pretorius, his place being filled by Mr. Burgers, a man of far greater cultivation and of superior attainments, who had been formerly a minister, and had afterwards shown great ability in conducting cases in the Cape Colony law-courts.

The new ruler of the Transvaal republic made a vigorous effort to develop civilization in a country devoid of a revenue-system, and, by consequence, of roads, railways, telegraphs, public buildings, and schools. President Burgers came to Europe and succeeded in raising part of a loan authorized by the Volksraad (Parliament) for the construction of a railway, and also engaged European instructors with the view of establishing a system of education. His schemes were wholly frustrated by the conditions prevailing among a people who had become half-barbaric during twenty years of isolation from all civilizing influences, and of warfare and association with Kafirs. In 1876, another native war arose against the powerful chieftain Sekukuni, and an attack made by a Boer commando, led by Burgers in person, was repulsed with loss. The country was now brought to the verge of ruin. The one-pound notes issued by the government as currency sank to the value of a shilling. Sekukuni and other chiefs were in arms on the north-east, north, and west. The Zulus under Cetewayo declared their intention of invasion from the south. The only resource was for the country to place itself under the protection of a stronger white Power, and, in the extremity to which matters had come, an important section of the people, headed by the principal officials, applied to Great Britain, and brought about the annexation of April, 1877, which, with the subsequent war and the concession of independence to the Boers of the Transvaal on certain terms, has been above recorded.

In the interests of historical truth, it must be plainly admitted that British statesmen of both political parties committed, during the period now under review, grievous mistakes which were to be severely punished, before the end of the century, by the enforced expenditure of blood and treasure in the great South African War. At the time of annexation, a promise of self-governing institutions was made to the Boers. That promise

was not carried out by the colonial authorities of the ministry headed by Lord Beaconsfield. Arbitrary officials and military martinets were appointed to rule on behalf of the Crown. Their lack of tact, the irritating regulations which they made, and the non-fulfilment of political engagements, created friction between the governing and the governed. The Boers rescued from ruin by British intervention aimed at renewed independence, and found a powerful ally in the foremost British statesman, who was placed, by the votes of a deluded majority, in a position to effect the most disastrous reversal of foreign or colonial policy known in British history. Again and again assurance had been made, in reply to applications for fresh independence, that the annexation would be maintained. Such was the reply of Lord Carnarvon to Paul Krüger and a colleague when they visited London. When a second deputation, consisting of Krüger and Pieter Joubert, came to England backed by memorials signed by over 6500 persons, a new Secretary for the Colonies, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, refused the withdrawal of British sovereignty. In 1879, the High Commissioner, Sir Bartle Frere, at an interview with Boers near Pretoria, bade them "never believe that the English people would give up the Transvaal". His successor, Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley, declared that "so long as the sun shone the Transvaal would remain British territory". Worse than all, Mr. Gladstone, in his famous "Midlothian campaign" at the close of 1879, condemned the annexation of the Transvaal in the strongest terms, and practically pledged himself, in the event of his coming into power, to repudiate the action. The portions of his speeches referring to South Africa were reprinted and distributed on separate slips of paper throughout the Transvaal, and his utterances were accepted there as a direct invitation to revolt. The spring of 1880 saw Mr. Gladstone in power, and the Boers, who had formally thanked him, when he was in opposition, for his sympathy, naturally looked for fulfilment of his words. They were astounded when the British sovereign, in the "Queen's Speech" of May 20th, was made by her new minister to announce the maintenance of British supremacy over the Transvaal. A telegram to the British High Commissioner declared "under no circumstances can the Queen's authority in the Transvaal be

relinquished". The Boer leaders then organized revolt. A great meeting was held at Paardekraal, at which Krüger, Pretorius, and Joubert were elected heads of a provisional government, and on December 16th, 1880, the independence of the republic was proclaimed. Then came the brief war ending on February 27th, 1881, at Majuba Hill, as already recorded, and Mr. Gladstone, having refused concession prior to disasters in the field, gave way to victorious foes, on some principle which has never been explained, and the Transvaal Boers were practically independent once more.

From the day when, in October, 1881, a convention restored self-rule to the Transvaal in regard to all internal affairs, a struggle for supremacy between the Boers and the British in South Africa was assured. Our foes beyond the Vaal regarded British troops, leaders, and politicians with contempt. The great British statesman, in his avoidance of what he styled "blood-guiltiness" and "a policy of revenge", sought gratitude for concessions, and found none. The only compensation which Great Britain received for the heavy expenditure in blood and money undertaken on account of the Boers in the Zulu and other wars was contained in certain conditions attached to the retrocession. The Transvaal was, with internal self-government, to be subject to the suzerainty of the British Crown. Its frontier-limits were defined. White men of all nationalities were to have equal rights with the burghers of the Transvaal to reside, travel, and carry on business in the country, and were to be subject to no special taxation. At that time, equality of political rights, without which there can be no true equality of industrial opportunity, existed in the Transvaal, and Mr. Krüger, as spokesman for the triumvirate in conducting the negotiations for peace, undertook that political equality should be maintained. British officials did not appreciate Boer character as they do now, and, satisfied with the astute Paul's assurance, our negotiators failed to cause the insertion, in the Convention of August, 1881, of an express provision regarding political rights.

We must now turn aside for a moment to deal with the rise of an organization whose existence, beyond doubt, influenced Mr. Gladstone in his weak and unwise concession to the Transvaal rebels. It was not merely righteousness, but downright fear, which caused him to give way. He dreaded a possible outbreak in Cape Colony.

He was afraid of the Afrikander Bond. This famous league or association, founded in 1880, consists, as its name imports, of "Afrikanders", or white persons of Dutch, Huguenot, British, or mixed extraction, who regard South Africa as their country and permanent abode. The organization started, in fact, a new form of nationalism. The members may be roughly divided into three political classes. In the first place, the Afrikanders descended from British ancestors are strongly attached to the Empire. Secondly, there are Afrikanders descended from Dutch and Huguenot ancestors who, like their British fellow-subjects, are anxious that South Africa should remain part of the one great empire. These members may be fairly described as loyal Dutch Afrikanders. The third, disloyal, dangerous class consists of men of Dutch and Huguenot ancestry who aim at establishing a United South Africa entirely free from British rule, as a country under a republican flag. These Afrikanders, the thoroughly Dutch party, are men who have no regard whatever for the liberty of the individual; who hate with a bitter hatred all men not of their own way of thinking, and would impose their rule upon their fellows not by persuasion but by brute force. The Mauser rifle is, to them, a holy symbol. They have no desire to see South Africa a country peopled by free men, but aim at pulling down the British flag, imposing on all the use of the Dutch language, and establishing a reign of barbaric terror. Such is the description of the rebellious Afrikanders given by an eminent member of the Bond, Mr. Wessels, formerly leader of the Pretoria Bar, a man who declares himself "proud of the fact that he has Dutch, French, and German blood in his veins". The South African war was mainly due to the evil ambition of the young Afrikanders of this class, whom the same high authority has described as "aggressively conceited", as holding "education, culture, industry, commerce, and skill in good government to be as nothing compared with skill in hitting a bottle with a rifle-bullet at two hundred yards' range". At the time of the rebellion in Mr. Gladstone's second period of power, General Joubert declared that he was fighting for a universal Dutch Republic from the Cape to the Zambesi; and it is certain that after 1881 the dominating idea in the counsels of Pretoria was a resolve to get rid, at all costs, of British supremacy in South Africa.

The keynote of Transvaal policy, from the days of the great migration, was animosity to Great Britain. The feeling was, for a time, subdued in order to obtain the charter of independence granted by the Sand River Convention. When this was conceded, the conditions of the Convention were openly and continuously violated, as has been shown, during the twenty-five years which elapsed between the grant of independence in 1852 and the annexation of 1877. The hostile feeling of Transvaalers towards Great Britain was again subdued in order to obtain the benefits of annexation. When British troops had made an end of danger from native chiefs, and financial pressure was relieved, a desire for independence was made manifest, and the movement grew rapidly through the impression created by the bad faith, inconsistency, and weakness displayed by the Beaconsfield and Gladstone governments. The annexation was cancelled, as we have seen, by Mr. Gladstone, under circumstances most injurious to British credit both with whites and natives in South Africa, and many loyalists were, by the retrocession, changed into bitter foes of British rule. The race-antipathy of Dutch and British was roused into new activity. The influence of the British party declined; that of the disloyal Afrikander rose; and the petty victories of Transvaalers over British troops made the anti-British party dream of a day when Dutchmen should be supreme throughout South Africa.

An event of great importance occurred when, in the year following the Convention of 1881, Mr. Paul Krüger was elected President of the Transvaal Republic. Prior to the annexation, the Transvaal hardly existed as a state. After the retrocession, its history became the history of one remarkable man, President Krüger. Born in Cape Colony in 1825; migrating across the Vaal in 1839; distinguished as "a mighty hunter" of large game, and as a fighter in native wars; Krüger, the "Oom (Uncle) Paul" of his admiring countrymen, became in 1872 a member of the Executive Council of the Transvaal. He soon acquired an ascendency among his colleagues, and obtained the predominant influence in Transvaal politics which caused his re-election in 1888, 1893, and 1898. In Paul Krüger, Dutch Afrikanderism was embodied and focussed, partly by force of circumstances, mainly by the character and ability of the man. The late president of the fallen South

African Republic was, in truth, a typical Boer, the embodiment and exponent of all that is most characteristic of his race. Narrow, ignorant, forceful, unscrupulous, and cunning; in his own way religious, and perfectly fearless in pursuit of his aims, he was the head and centre of the South African problem. For twenty years he consistently worked towards one ideal, a United States of South Africa, an Afrikander Republic with himself as its Washington. The Boers whom he ruled in the Transvaal were a far inferior race to their Dutch and Huguenot progenitors. Devoid of literature, arts, and skilled industries, they represented a people who, in the course of two centuries, had actually gone backward, instead of forward, in civilization. They have been, very inaccurately, compared to British Puritans of the seventeenth century, but the Dutch Puritans of South Africa have produced no Milton or Baxter, no Bunyan or John Howe. The comparison which pro-Boers in the British Isles made between the rude, coarse, cruel, faithless Cronje and one of the greatest of Britons, Oliver Cromwell, was exquisitely absurd. The religion of the Boers, in its difference from that of old Puritanism, has not saved them from being, of all races of mankind, the most untruthful, and, in many ways, the least scrupulous.

In order to understand the true origin of the great Boer-British war, we must regard it as a conflict of forces, not of individuals, or even of races. The true causes of the contest lie deep, and have little to do with the personalities, as shallow persons assert, of Mr. Rhodes or Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Krüger or Sir Alfred Milner. The struggle which arose in the last days of the nineteenth century was the outcome of a series of tendencies lying far back in history. It was a conflict between two opposite political ideals, two incompatible orders of civilization. On the one side, the British, were ranged freedom, order, progress, equality of British and Dutch before the law and in political privileges. The Boers fought to maintain conservatism in the worst sense, intolerance, the dominance of a caste, and the triumph of old-world ideals arrogantly enforced. The contest was not one between imperialism and republicanism, but between free institutions and an ignorant and illiberal oligarchy.

The ambition of President Krüger quickly caused him to chafe under the conditions of the Convention of 1881. In the foreign

relations which he now sought to cultivate, he found himself hampered by the necessity of conducting matters through the agency of the British resident, whose functions resembled those of a consul-general and *chargé d'affaires.* In November, 1883, Krüger and two other delegates arrived in England, and induced Mr. Gladstone's government to supersede the arrangement of 1881 by the "Convention of London", signed in February 1884. In this document, the right of the British sovereign to veto foreign treaties of the Transvaal Government was maintained, along with the rights of natives and of aliens, the renunciation of slavery or apprenticeship, freedom of religion, and other matters dealt with in the Convention of 1881. The Transvaal state was now officially designated the "South African Republic", and the President, having obtained from Great Britain more than he had expected, though not the complete independence which he had sought, published in the London newspapers a cordial invitation and promise of welcome and protection to Englishmen who cared to settle in the Transvaal. He had his private financial reasons for this invitation, but the fact of its issue may be fairly set against his subsequent audacious statement that the immigration of Uitlanders into the Transvaal was made against his will. It was at this time, after the conclusion of the Convention of 1884, that Mr. Krüger made a visit to Holland and Germany, and invited from these countries the immigration which afterwards played so conspicuous a part in the development of Transvaal affairs.

In our exposure of bad faith on the part of the Boers of the Transvaal, we must not fail to notice some gross breaches of the Convention of 1881. Far more land had been then allotted to the Transvaal than its population has to this day been able to occupy, but Mr. Krüger still coveted an extension of territory. Within a few months of the signature of the Convention, bodies of Boers were raiding the western frontier, bordering on Bechuanaland, and within two years they had established, in that country, two republics known as "Stellaland" and "Goshen". The matter was settled at last, in 1885, by the expedition, above recorded, under Sir Charles Warren, the breach of the Convention by the Boers having cost Great Britain about two millions sterling as well as much trouble and disturbance on the borders of Cape Colony. The clauses relating to the natives were also disregarded by

the Transvaal authorities, and a war with Mapoch, one of the northern chiefs, ended in the distribution of about 8000 natives as "apprentices", that is, slaves, amongst the burghers of the victorious commando. In truth, modern history may be ransacked in vain for a parallel to the relations which were permitted to exist between the British and the Boer governments during the period now under review. Never did a great Power submit more meekly to repeated insult; never did conciliation more manifestly meet with increased provocation due to contempt. The Convention of 1884 was no better kept by the Boer Government than the Sand River Convention and the Convention of 1881. In 1885, the Boers invaded Zululand, and the intervention of the British Government did not prevent the establishment across the border, in the most fertile district of the invaded country, of the "New Republic", recognized as a Boer State in 1886, and incorporated with the Transvaal in 1887. Then the Transvaal authorities, in their restless and greedy spirit of aggression, turned their attention to Swaziland, a country whose independence had been specially guaranteed by the 12th Article of the Convention of London. In the end, President Krüger's will prevailed, and in 1890, with some sacrifice of the interests of natives who had trusted to British protection, Swaziland became a dependency of the South African Republic. A similar attempt was made on the independence of Tongaland, on the south-eastern frontier of the Transvaal, but the queen sought safety in the protection of Great Britain, whose suzerainty she accepted in 1887. In 1890, one year after the grant of a royal charter to the British South Africa Company, an immense "trek" or expedition was organized in the Transvaal for the purpose of establishing a Boer republic in "chartered" territories. That attempt was foiled by the firmness of the High Commissioner, the late Lord Loch, and of Dr. Jameson, who met the expedition at the Limpopo with a body of the British Bechuanaland Police, while the High Commissioner informed President Krüger that the crossing of the river by his people would constitute an "act of war". A final attempt of Boer ambition was made on the native territories of Zambaan and Umbegesa, on the east coast, between the Portuguese boundary and that of Zululand. This was met by the annexation of the territories by Great Britain, who, in 1895, extended the

frontier of her protectorate to the Portuguese border. All these attempts were made in contravention of the strict agreement of the Convention of 1884, by which the South African Republic bound herself to faithfully respect the frontier laid down therein. In 1894, President Krüger attempted forcibly to enlist British subjects, and to tax them and take their goods in support of his warfare with native tribes, although he refused to them all representation, all share in the government of the country. In 1895, the Cape Government had to seek British aid in order to prevent the arbitrary action of the Transvaal Government in closing the "drifts", or roads across streams, to the passage of Cape merchandise; and in 1897, the British Government was forced to protest against the Alien Immigration Law as a distinct breach of the Convention of 1884. In no case did the Transvaal Government yield to argument and persuasion alone, but only to a display of force involving heavy expenditure for British taxpayers, or to a well-justified menace of warfare which it was not yet prepared to face.

In all these matters we are to see, if we desire to understand the question before us, a development of ambition, on the part of Mr. Krüger and his fellow-oligarchs, due to an enormous increase of power proceeding from the discovery of gold recorded above in connection with the "Jameson Raid". A new era for the republic had come with the opening of the mines, in 1885, which were soon to become the richest in the world. When President Krüger returned from his foreign tour at the end of 1884, the republic was in serious straits for money. The old difficulties of the Transvaal were as acute as ever. Native disturbances were rife. Mr. Joubert, who had acted as president during Krüger's absence, now placed himself at the head of a faction which charged the President's anti-British retrogressive policy with responsibility for the bad condition of the country. The country Boers, according to their custom when dissension arose among the authorities at Pretoria, refused to pay their taxes, and by the end of 1885 bankruptcy was again in full view. The future of the Transvaal was changed when, in July, 1886, the rich Witwatersrand was proclaimed as a gold-field. The district was soon flooded with a rush of foreign gold-miners, speculators, and traders. Johannesburg became the largest town

in South Africa. The material effect of the development of the gold-fields is stated in the facts that whereas, in 1884, the State owed £396,000, with a revenue of £143,000 and an expenditure of £184,000, in 1897 the revenue closely approached four and a half millions, with an expenditure well within that amount, and a debt of three millions on which interest was assured. In 1886, the salaries of officials amounted to £51,000. Thirteen years later, it had reached a total of nearly a million and a quarter sterling. The annual value of the output of gold from the mines had reached the total of sixteen millions, a result wholly produced by the industry of aliens, known in the Transvaal as Uitlanders, the larger proportion being British subjects.

The aims of Mr. Krüger and his fellow-oligarchs rose in proportion with the development of power caused by the enormous increase of wealth. In one at least of the efforts made for increase of territory it was clear that an outlet on the eastern seaboard of South Africa was the object in view. A deliberate plot was formed for the extinction of British authority and influence in South Africa. The Krüger party was not confined to the Transvaal. At the last general election in Cape Colony prior to the war, the Bond party defeated the loyal Premier, Sir Gordon Sprigg, with the aid of Transvaal gold. Transvaal emissaries found their way to every part of South Africa, stirring up disaffection and race-feeling. The secret fund annually spent in the service of the Executive of the South African Republic was forty times as large as that needed by the British Empire. The Civil Service was crowded with Hollanders. The President and his party would not, of course, employ British people, and the Boers were, from lack of education, unable to fulfil the duties. The burghers were not instructed, but armed. In spite of all denials, it is certain that the provision of the formidable armaments which astonished the world in the late struggle began long before the Jameson Raid. The matter was worked with marvellous cleverness and cunning. No man could prove, in a court of justice, by legal evidence, the conspiracy against British power in South Africa, but year by year the preparations for the intended conflict were steadily carried on. The Jameson Raid was a mere incident due to the tyranny and misrule of the

oligarchy, whose unexampled corruption was ruthlessly exposed, on documentary evidence, in Mr. Fitzpatrick's famous work *The Transvaal from Within.* The wrongs of the alien population, the Uitlanders, included monopolies by which they were defrauded; the denial of education to their children; the misconduct of an inefficient and ignorant police; brutal outrages committed on Indian subjects of the Queen and on coloured men, also British subjects, coming from Cape Colony; and the absolute practical refusal of the franchise, the only means by which a gradual improvement in the system of rule could be peacefully made. The treatment of British subjects in the South African Republic became a scandal, bringing the British name into general contempt in South Africa. Representations of our government, couched in most conciliatory terms, were ever ignored, and all advances were treated with disdain. In 1892 Mr. Krüger, replying to an influential deputation of Uitlanders, said: "Go back and tell your people that I shall never give them anything; I shall never change my policy; and now let the storm burst". In 1894, the Transvaal Raad, receiving a Uitlander petition for redress of grievances, a document bearing 35,000 signatures, met it with an absolute refusal to make any concession, and with the assurance that if the Uitlanders wanted the franchise they would have to fight for it. The Volksraad session of 1895 clearly revealed, by its legislation, the determination of the Government to effect no reform, and in that year the capitalists of Johannesburg, who had hitherto held aloof, formally associated themselves with the movement for reform. Towards the end of the same year, the President, with a view of compelling traffic to pass over his own line from Delagoa Bay, closed the drifts or fords by which goods carried on the Cape and Natal and Orange Free State railways entered the Transvaal. This open, insolent breach of the Convention brought what was virtually a joint ultimatum from the Imperial Government and Cape Colony, forcing him to rescind his declaration.

Such was the policy of the Transvaal oligarchy headed by Krüger prior to the Jameson Raid. Taking full advantage of that untoward occurrence, the Transvaal Government pressed on its armaments, building forts, importing vast quantities of weapons

and ammunition, and drilling and reorganizing military forces with the aid of European, chiefly German, French, and Russian, experts. At the same time, the military alliance with the Free State was strengthened, and the political intriguing in Cape Colony and Natal became more active. The rulers of the South African Republic were thus actively and rapidly preparing for a conflict which they had resolved to provoke. It is believed that the intention was to delay the contest until rebellion in Cape Colony should be fully arranged, with the arming of the disaffected, and to await a time when European complications might render it difficult for Great Britain to exert her full strength in South Africa.

The dissatisfaction of the Uitlanders with their political and social position was intensified by a tragical occurrence on December 18th, 1898. At midnight, four Johannesburg policemen, without any warrant, and merely on suspicion of an offence being committed, broke into the house of an Englishman named Edgar. There was, it seems, some resistance made, and one of the officers stated that he was struck with a stick. The police, at any rate, there and then shot Edgar dead, and a jury, by their verdict, justified the action. The shocking and criminal blunder committed was made much worse by the light way in which it was first dealt with by the Public Prosecutor, and by the attitude of the judge at the trial. No grievance rankled more in the breasts of the mass of the Uitlander population than the conduct of the police. Utterly incompetent, from sheer corruption, to deal with the gross scandal of the illicit liquor trade and other evils, they were harsh and arbitrary in the treatment of individuals whom they happened to dislike, and were notorious for frequent ill-treatment of coloured people. The excitement caused by the murder of Edgar led to the address, in March, 1899, of a petition to the Queen, signed by 21,000 British subjects resident in the Transvaal, calling attention to the grievances of the Uitlanders, and seeking protection through her Majesty's Government. That Government, in a despatch of May 10th, represented the grievances of the Uitlanders, and proposed a conference between the High Commissioner, Sir Alfred Milner, and President Krüger. Before the despatch was presented, however, Sir Alfred Milner,

RIGHT HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, M.P.

This eminent politician, one of the ablest British public men and ministers in the later decades of the nineteenth century, and at the opening of the new era, was born in London, in July, 1836. Educated at University College School, he retired from business in Birmingham with ample wealth in 1874, having already gained considerable reputation as a Radical partisan. From 1873 to 1876 he was Mayor of Birmingham, and in June, 1876, he was chosen M.P. for the town. He soon made his mark as a Parliamentary debater, and in 1880 became President of the Board of Trade, with a seat in the cabinet, and caused the passing of an important and valuable Bankruptcy Bill. In February 1886 he was appointed President of the Local Government Board, but resigned in the following month, being opposed to Mr. Gladstone (his leader's) "Home Rule" policy. Henceforth Mr. Chamberlain was a leader of the "Liberal Unionists", and in 1895 he joined the third ministry of Lord Salisbury as Secretary for the Colonies. His term of office was marked by the outbreak of the war in South Africa, after negotiations in which he displayed admirable firmness and patriotic feeling. In 1896 Mr. Chamberlain was elected Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow.

From a photograph by ELLIOTT & FRY.

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on the invitation of Mr. Steyn, President of the Orange Free State, met Mr. Krüger at Bloemfontein on May 31st, and proposed the grant of the franchise to the Uitlanders as a means of relieving the situation. The Transvaal President's proposals were so inadequate that the conference, on June 5th, ended without result. It would be alike tedious and futile to attempt to deal with the ensuing diplomatic discussions between Mr. Krüger and Mr. Chamberlain. The Boer war-party never intended to make any real concession of franchise for the Uitlanders, and the British Government, with an eye to contingencies, reinforced the slender garrison in Cape Colony, and made arrangements for the despatch of a contingent of Imperial troops from Bombay to Natal. On August 19th, General Sir F. Forestier-Walker, succeeding Sir William Butler, sailed from Southampton to assume charge of the forces in Cape Colony. This officer, who was afterwards placed in charge of the line of communications, was an able and experienced man who, having entered the Scots Guards in 1862, served in the Kafir War of 1877–78, the Zulu War of 1879, and in the Bechuanaland expedition of 1884, and held a command in Egypt from 1889 to 1895.

On August 29th the state of affairs had become so threatening that Uitlander families began to leave Pretoria. In the course of September, the troops from India, about six thousand men of all arms, arrived at Durban. On September 28th the Raad, or Parliament, of the Orange Free State decided to support the South African Republic in the event of war with Great Britain. On October 2nd Boer troops began to move from Pretoria and other quarters to the borders of Natal in the northern angle of that colony. Two days later, the Boer Government caused the seizure of about half a million sterling in gold from the Transvaal mail-train for Cape Town. At this time, a pause had come in the negotiations between Mr. Krüger and Mr. Chamberlain, and our Colonial Secretary was understood to be framing new proposals when, on October 11th, the world was startled by the tidings of the South African Republic's famous "ultimatum". That remarkable document, received at the Colonial Office in London on the morning of October 10th, 1899, graciously accorded to the British Government the space

of about thirty hours for consideration, the time-limit expiring at five p.m. at Pretoria, or about three p.m. in London, on October 11th. The Boer forces were, at the time of the issue of the ultimatum, in threatening proximity to Mafeking, on the border between Bechuanaland and the Transvaal; to Kimberley, on the frontier separating Cape Colony, and the Orange Free State; and to the narrow northern end of Natal, the triangle running up between the Orange Free State on the west and the Transvaal on the east. The text of President Krüger's ultimatum accused the British Government of "assuming a threatening tone" in the discussions concerning the franchise; denied any British right to interfere at all in that matter; complained of the presence of British troops "in the neighbourhood of the borders of the Republic" as a threat against its independence; suggested arbitration on all points of difference; and finally demanded, firstly, "that British troops on the borders of the Republic should be instantly withdrawn"; secondly, that "all reinforcements which had arrived in South Africa since June 1st, 1899, should be removed from South Africa within a reasonable time, to be agreed upon"; thirdly, that "any British troops now on the high seas should not be landed in any port of South Africa". Non-compliance with these demands before five p.m. on October 11th, or any further movement of British troops nearer to the borders, would be regarded as "a formal declaration of war". To this document no reply whatever was given by the British Government except a statement that there was no answer. The die was cast; the Rubicon was crossed, in ungainly fashion, by the political representatives of the South African Republic. The most insolent of all ultimatums was, in truth, the fitting climax to the most audacious and unprincipled of all conspiracies against the rightful supremacy of a great Power within her own colonial possessions.

Many thousands of refugees from the two republics had already arrived at Durban and Cape Town, and had become dependent, in countless cases, for support on the bounty which was freely provided by subscriptions in the British Isles. There were many true stories concerning the brutal ill-treatment of these hapless persons by Boers at the railway-stations during the journey through the Republican territory. On the night of October 11th

the British Diplomatic Agent in the Transvaal, Mr. Conyngham Greene, quitted Pretoria, handing over the care of such British subjects as remained within the borders of the Transvaal to the United States Consul. Sir Alfred Milner issued a proclamation declaring all persons who should aid and abet the enemy in a state of war with Great Britain to be guilty of high treason. The outbreak of war was received by an overwhelming majority of the Queen's subjects in the British Isles as presenting the only means likely to provide a permanently peaceful settlement of affairs in South Africa. The same view was taken in the greater colonies, the Canadian Dominion and Australasia, and offers of contingents of troops from those regions were promptly made to and accepted by the home government. At Ottawa, Montreal, Toronto, Quebec, Winnipeg, and Vancouver; at Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Brisbane, Perth (West Australia), Wellington (New Zealand), Auckland, and Hobart, and at other colonial centres, a spirit of the utmost loyalty was displayed, and volunteers for the contingents of troops eagerly presented themselves in numbers far greater than could be then enrolled for active service. Mr. Krüger and Mr. Steyn, seeking to destroy the British Empire, had succeeded, at the very outset of their impudent undertaking, in consolidating its vast resources.

We need enter here into no details concerning the British Regular Forces of all arms despatched in succession to the scene of warfare. To mention the different battalions of infantry and cavalry, the batteries of Field and Royal Horse Artillery, and the transport, ambulance, engineering, telegraph, war-balloon, and other corps, including a siege-train and howitzers for field-service, would be, apart from the troops serving in India, and at Malta and Gibraltar, almost to transcribe the Army List. Most of the Regulars in the British Isles, with battalions from Gibraltar and Malta, and other foreign stations, were included in the Army Corps of about forty thousand men which was soon despatched, to be followed, as the magnitude of the contest was revealed, by the mobilization of Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Divisions, forming another complete Army Corps. As the struggle proceeded, the men of the Reserves were summoned and promptly joined the colours. Militia battalions were sent

abroad to reinforce the reduced garrisons of Malta and Gibraltar, and several battalions of the same auxiliary force volunteered for service in South Africa.

As regards the Boer forces who took the field, it is impossible to form an exact estimate. It had been supposed that the two republics could mobilize about fifty thousand burghers in their various commandoes, but it is certain that the fighting force engaged against our troops greatly exceeded that number. Thousands of Uitlanders of divers nationalities, and of adventurers from Europe and the United States—Germans, Americans, Frenchmen, Swiss, Swedes, Norwegians, Hollanders, Danes, Belgians, Italians, and Spaniards—and many Cape Afrikanders, swelled the ranks of our foes. It soon became evident to our surprise and our discomfiture in some instances—that not only was the Boer army supplied with an excellent rifle in the Mauser pattern, and with abundant and powerful artillery of the newest style and longest range, and that the guns were served by skilled artillerymen, many of whom were foreigners, but that foreign officers of great experience and skill were aiding the Boer generals—Joubert, Cronje, the two Bothas, and others—by their direction and advice in tactics, strategy, and engineering. We were thus engaged, not merely against a nation in arms—a great force of men whose style of fighting, as mounted infantry, was exactly suited to their equipment and to the nature of the country in which they were waging war—but against a European element in positions of command, whose presence was equivalent to a reinforcement of many thousands of men. These facts are almost of themselves sufficient to account for the checks and disasters experienced by the brave, and, on ordinary fields of warfare, skilful and experienced officers and men who went forth to uphold the honour of the British flag in South Africa. It must, however, be admitted that our forces were by no means amply supplied, at the outset, in two departments, with the armament needful to ensure rapid success against such foes as the Boers, aided as has been above shown. We were deficient in light cavalry for the purposes of scouting and of rapid pursuit, and in mounted infantry as a force for coping with enemies so numerous and so mobile, capable of passing at speed from one end to the other of an extensive battle-field, and thus enabled,

from time to time, to surprise, surround, and overwhelm detached bodies of infantry, unsupported by horsemen or by the swiftly-moving guns of the Royal Horse Artillery. It may be noted here that the British land-forces were, from the beginning of the war, aided by naval brigades from the fleets at Simonstown (Cape of Good Hope) and at Durban, and that naval guns in charge of the gallant seamen rendered most valuable service against the long-range artillery used by the Boers.

Before entering on the first part of our subject, the earlier operations in Natal, we may record that the first act of war committed by the Boers was the seizure, on October 11th, of a Natal train proceeding from Ladysmith to Harrismith, a town about thirty miles, by rail, within the Orange Free State. On the afternoon of the same day, Natal was invaded by forces from the Transvaal, who occupied Laing's Nek, a few miles north of Majuba Hill, and were seen marching south towards Ingogo, on the way to Newcastle. All railway rolling-stock was at once ordered down to the south of Newcastle, and many of the inhabitants of that little town quitted the place rather than await the arrival of the foe. The first shots of the war were fired far away to the north-west, beyond the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. On Thursday, October 12th, the enemy crossed the frontier into Cape Colony, and occupied the railway in force between Mafeking and Vryburg, a town about ninety miles to the south-west, on the way to Kimberley. An armoured train on its way from Vryburg to Mafeking was conveying two seven-pounder guns, sent from Cape Town to strengthen the Mafeking works. At Kraaipan Siding, about forty miles south of Mafeking, the train ran off the rails, some of the metals having been removed by the Boers. There were fifteen men, commanded by Captain Nesbitt, in charge of the train and its freight. A heavy fire was opened on the wreckage from nine-pounder guns in position for the purpose, and from rifles. From midnight until five in the morning the brave little band of Britons kept up a return-fire, inflicting serious loss on the enemy, but the party became prisoners when their leader had been severely wounded and several of the men disabled.

While the Transvaal Boers were pouring across the frontier in the northern angle of Natal, their Free State allies invaded

the colony on the north-west by way of Van Reenen's Pass and at other points. The country is one singularly well adapted for the operations of such a military force as that directed by the Boer commanders, in the broken nature of the ground, with its countless hills (*kopjes*) and hollows (*dongas*), affording positions for defensive warfare, and abundant opportunity for concealment of troops in ambuscades. Some description has been already given of how the land in Natal, as usual in South Africa, rises in terraces from the sea, and we need only remind our readers that whereas Pinetown, only seventeen miles inland from the sea, is 1100 feet above the sea-level, the capital, Pietermaritzburg, seventy miles from Durban by rail, stands at double that height, or 2200 feet. Estcourt, seventy-five miles by rail farther to the north-west, lies at the height of 3800 feet. Ladysmith, forty-four miles north of Estcourt, is somewhat lower, but stands well above 3000 feet. From the Drakensberg Mountains, smaller ranges run across Natal to the east, the north-east, and the south-east, as the Biggarsberg Hills, cutting off the northernmost corner—the Newcastle district — from the rest of the colony; the Mooi River heights, running north-east from the Giant's Castle, a mountain over 9000 feet high on the Natal and Basutoland border, to the valley of the Tugela; and two other ranges, one running to the Lower Tugela, the other in a south-easterly direction to the sea near Durban.

Of the many rivers of Natal, the largest is the Tugela, rising in the Mont aux Sources, on the Basutoland border, a mountain over 11,000 feet high, and flowing for two hundred miles before it reaches the sea. In many miles of its course it is a strong stream, passing through rocky ravines. Among its tributaries are the Klip River, passing by Ladysmith from the north, and entering the Tugela about ten miles north-east of Colenso; the Mooi River, running north-east about midway between Estcourt and Greytown; Bushmans River, passing by Estcourt, and, with a north-easterly course, through Weenen, and entering the Tugela at a point about twenty miles due east of Colenso; and Sundays River, rising in forests near the Drakensberg, and flowing south-eastwards until it unites with the Waschbank about twenty miles due east of Ladysmith, the joint stream, which still keeps south-east, reaching the Tugela at about twenty-five

miles east of Colenso. Of the railway-line, the sections which concern this part of our record are the line running north-west and north from Pietermaritzburg to Ladysmith, especially the northern part, from Estcourt, through stations named Ennersdale, Frere, Chieveley, Colenso, Pieters, and Nelthorpe, to Ladysmith; and the railway north-east from Ladysmith, through Elandslaagte, Wessels Nek, and Waschbank Stations, to Glencoe Junction, with the eight-mile branch eastwards from the junction to Dundee and the coal-fields lying south of that town. At a later stage of the history of the warfare in Natal, we shall find interest in the line northwards from Glencoe Junction to the Transvaal frontier, through stations named Dannhauser and Ingagane to the town of Newcastle; then through Ingogo and Mount Prospect Stations, past Majuba Hill, to Laings Nek with the long tunnel, and so to Charlestown, the last town in Natal.

At the time of the invasion of Natal on October 12th, the British force numbered about fifteen thousand men. At Ladysmith, the force of about nine thousand troops included battalions of the Liverpool Regiment and the Gordon Highlanders; the 1st Devonshires and 1st Gloucesters, the 1st Royal Irish Fusiliers, the 5th Lancers, and the 19th Hussars; three field-batteries, a battery of Natal Artillery, a mountain-battery, and two guns of the Natal Naval Reserves—thirty-two guns in all, with several companies of mounted infantry, a hospital and veterinary corps, a company of Royal Engineers, and the Natal Mounted Volunteers. At Glencoe, a force of over four thousand men comprised the 1st Leicestershire, 1st King's Royal Rifles, 2nd Dublin Fusiliers, some companies of Mounted Infantry, the 18th Hussars, some Natal Mounted Volunteers, a field-hospital corps, and three field-batteries. Some hundreds of Colonial Volunteers were at Estcourt and Colenso; at Pietermaritzburg were the 2nd King's Royal Rifles and the Imperial Light Horse. The Natal colonial troops included, besides those mentioned above, the Home Guard Rifle Association (mounted) for the protection of the capital, the Carabineers, and the Natal Mounted Infantry. The last two bodies of men are described as remarkably smart and fit for work, fine riders, and excellent as rifle shots. The Imperial Light Horse, a splendid body of men, exceeded eight

hundred, and there was also a force known as the Border Mounted Rifles, useful as scouts and as supports of cavalry outposts.

The officer in command of all the troops in Natal at the outset was General Sir George Stewart White, V.C.; G.C.B.; G.C.I.E.; G.C.S.I., a gallant soldier, of noble, chivalrous character and demeanour, a man of distinguished service both in the field and in high administrative appointments. An Irishman, born in 1835, he passed from Sandhurst, in November, 1853, into an Irish regiment, the old 27th Foot, now the 1st Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers. With that corps he served in the Indian Mutiny campaign, and in 1863 he was transferred as a captain to the 92nd, now the 2nd Gordon Highlanders. He did his duty as a simple regimental officer until the outbreak of the Afghan War in 1879, when the 92nd were sent to the front. As Major White, the officer under notice was present at the action of Charasiah, the occupation of Kabul, various affairs around Kabul and the Sherpur Cantonments, and in the march from Kabul to Kandahar and the subsequent battle, in which Ayoub Khan was defeated by General Roberts. In these events White so bore himself as to win repeated mention in despatches, and to emerge from the campaign not only with a C.B. and a Brevet Lieutenant-colonelcy, but with the Victoria Cross. It was at Charasiah on October 6th, 1879, that he won this last distinction. The enemy declined to quit an important position, and Major White led an attack upon it with two companies of the Gordons. Climbing from ledge to ledge, the men became exhausted, and a serious check seemed inevitable, when their leader, taking a rifle from the hands of one of his soldiers, advanced alone against the foe and shot their chief dead. The Afghans, dismayed by this astounding act of courage, fled, and a rush of the Gordons captured the position. At the battle of Kandahar, in the following year, this splendid officer fairly won the Cross again, as he led the final charge of his battalion against the enemy, who were playing on his attack with two guns. White rode deliberately up to within a few yards of the position, and, as soon as he caught sight of the guns, dashed forward and secured one of them, thereby rendering the attack perfectly successful. After this war, Colonel White's advance was very

rapid. After a short period of service as military secretary to the Marquess of Ripon, Viceroy of India, he became a battalion commander, and in 1884 he was sent to Egypt on the staff of Lord Wolseley's Nile expedition. In 1885–86 he commanded a brigade in the Burmese war, and was in charge of the Upper Burma Field Force after the capture of Mandalay. His services during the pacification of Burma were specially brilliant, the task being one which severely taxed even his coolness and administrative capacity. For his anxious work during the years from 1885 to 1889 he was rewarded by promotion to the rank of Major-general and by a K.C.B. In 1889 Sir George White was appointed to the command of a district in Bengal, and in 1893 he succeeded Lord Roberts as Commander-in-Chief in India. He held this high post with dignity and success, and showed admirable tact and wonderful industry in carrying out the Indian Army Re-organization Scheme of 1895, by which the old Presidency Armies were abolished, and the Punjab, Bengal, Bombay, and Madras commands were instituted. During his tenure of the chief military control in India, the Chitral Expedition was carried to a successful termination, and the operations connected with the great Frontier Risings of 1897–98 were nearly concluded. On relinquishing the Indian command, White accepted the post of Quarter-Master-General to the Home Forces, and, after a delay due to a rather serious accident, he took up his appointment in October, 1898. After holding it for about nine months, he was selected for the vacant governorship of Gibraltar, but this new command had scarcely been announced when the Transvaal crisis arose, and Sir George was summoned to the new scene of action in Natal, where he was to win increased renown in connection with one of the historic sieges of modern days. His chief of the staff was Sir Archibald Hunter, K.C.B., who, born in 1856, entered the army in 1874. He was wounded in Egypt at the battles of Giniss, 1885, and of Toski, 1889. Governor of Dongola Province and Commandant of the Frontier Field Force from 1895 to 1899, he won high distinction, as we have seen, in the Sudan campaigns by the swift seizure of Akasha in March, 1896; in the operations which ended in the occupation of Dongola; and especially in the capture of Abu Hamed. After taking part in the battle of the Atbara, he

commanded the Egyptian Division in the Omdurman campaign, and became Governor of Omdurman in 1899, whence he proceeded to his new sphere of action in South Africa. Sir George White's subordinates were Major-General Sir William Penn Symons, K.C.B., whom we have seen in the Chitral and North-West Frontier campaigns, and Colonel Yule, in command of a brigade.

The occupation of any part of the narrow northern district of Natal, hemmed in by two hostile frontiers, and thus affording opportunity for the enveloping movements which are the beginning and the end of Boer tactics, was a mistake for which Sir George White's military judgment was not responsible. He arrived at Durban on October 7th, and strongly advocated the abandonment of the northern territory. He gave way, however, to the urgent representations of the Governor of Natal, Sir W. F. Hely-Hutchinson, who, with his ministers, feared that the withdrawal of forces to the Ladysmith position would have a bad effect as regarded disloyal elements in the Natal population. Complaints were made by loyal colonists on the abandonment even of Charlestown and Newcastle, and, as a concession to the mining interest, it was resolved to hold Dundee, forty-six miles north of Ladysmith, as General Symons believed that the district could be defended by a comparatively small force. He knew nothing, in fact, of the strength of the invading forces, and the attempt to hold the Dundee region caused a useless and costly British victory, followed by a retreat which might have ended in disaster.

The Transvaal Boers invaded Natal in three columns. The main force, under General Joubert, crossed Laing's Nek, and occupied Charlestown, seizing Newcastle on October 14th. An exodus of civilians began from Dundee to the south, and the Imperial Light Horse moved up from Pietermaritzburg to the front. Another Transvaal force, under Ben Viljoen, entered Natal by Botha's Pass, west of Ingogo, moved south through the Biggarsberg, and cut the railway between Glencoe and Ladysmith. At the same time a column from Wakkerstroom, in the Transvaal, north-east from Charlestown, crossed Buffalo River, forming there the eastern frontier of Natal, and marched on Dundee. The plan was to attack General Symons, encamped

along the branch line from Glencoe Junction eastwards, simultaneously from the north and the east, while the Free State Boers, threatening Ladysmith from the Drakensberg, detained Sir George White's main force at Ladysmith, and Viljoen's command cut the retreat of the Dundee garrison to the south, and intercepted any reinforcements that could be spared from Ladysmith. It was a well-conceived plan, but the movements were badly timed. Lukas Meyer seized Talana Hill, near Dundee village, before dawn on Friday, October 20th. Viljoen had cut the railway at Elandslaagte on the previous afternoon, but the main body under Joubert did not reach the scene of action until Saturday, October 21st.

The Free State Boers, menacing Ladysmith from the west, caused the first fighting in the Natal campaign, which occurred on Wednesday, October 18th. Sir George White's outposts came into contact with the enemy at Acton Homes, a village north of the Tugela, and about twenty-five miles west of Ladysmith, and at Bester's Station, on the railway about fifteen miles north-west of headquarters. About five hundred men of the Natal Carabineers and Border Mounted Rifles were engaged nearly all day against some two thousand of the enemy, and gave an excellent show of the quality of the colonial volunteers. The Boers constantly tried outflanking tactics on right and left, and strove to draw the Natal men into traps, but their efforts were steadily and warily foiled, a Maxim gun being very useful in stopping sudden rushes. A retreat was easily effected in presence of the enemy's superior forces, under Major Ruthven, of the Mounted Rifles. The party reached Ladysmith at three in the morning on October 19th, after being three days and nights in the saddle, and foodless for twenty-four hours. More serious work was at hand near Dundee.

The first important action in the war was that variously known as the "Battle of Glencoe" or "Dundee", or "Talana (Intalana) Hill", this last position being that stormed by the British troops. On October 20th the British force—about four thousand men—lay, as we have seen, east of Glencoe Junction, north of the branch-line to Dundee, under Major-General Symons, a man whose ability had been recognized by Lord Roberts, and who rendered good service in India, as Assistant Adjutant-General, in the reform of rifle practice. Himself one

of the best shots in the army, he ever strove to make the men under his command good marksmen, and also took a deep interest in mounted infantry as a valuable species of force. He had the reputation of being cool, resolute, and prompt in command, and he displayed these qualities on the first—and, as it unhappily proved, the last—occasion of his appearance in action in this war. Soon after five o'clock in the morning of October 20th, several Boer long-range guns posted on Talana Hill, about a mile east of Dundee, opened fire and dropped shells into the British camp at a range of three thousand yards. The missiles did not burst, and no man was hit by the earlier shots. Within a few minutes, three field-batteries — the 13th, 67th, and 69th —manned by some of the finest gunners in the service, were making effective reply. Shell after shell was planted right in the midst of the Boers, and their range and aim became rapidly worse. In half an hour several of the enemy's guns were silenced, either disabled by shell or deserted by their gunners. Half an hour later their artillery-fire ceased, and General Symons issued orders in rapid succession for an advance of the infantry. Time was precious, as a formidable attack from the north was believed to be imminent, and Boers a few miles away to the south were also menacing our position. The Leicester Regiment was left to guard the camp, with the 18th Hussars, the Natal Volunteers, the Mounted Infantry, and the 67th battery, and Symons moved out against the enemy with the Dublin Fusiliers marching towards their right flank, the King's Rifles in the central attack, and the Royal Irish Fusiliers on the right, to assail the Boer left. At this time the sky became overcast, and mist began to settle on the sides of the hills. The other two batteries moved forward over two miles of broken ground, and the guns were unlimbered in the enemy's front just outside Dundee to the east. For a full hour the gunners maintained a terrific fire upon the hill and the slope behind the crest. About eight o'clock, some Boers from the north appeared on a hill west of the British camp, but they were soon driven off by the fire of the 67th battery. Meanwhile, the two battalions of Fusiliers and the Rifles were advancing with perfect order in skirmishing line, taking shelter under every bit of cover from the hail of Mauser and Maxim bullets poured down on the plain.

Talana, a typical South African hill, with a broad, flat top, and a very steep ascent up the last few hundred yards, is about eight hundred feet high, on the north side of a nek which the east road crosses before descending to the Buffalo River. The first part of the ascent is gentle, over open ground, to a homestead known as Smith's Farm, surrounded by a wood broken up by clearings. Above the wood the ground is rough and rocky, with a steep ascent, and round the base of this slope runs a thick stone wall, with a wide terrace of open ground beyond it, above which the final ascent is almost perpendicular. Such a position, defended by riflemen and Maxims, should have been impregnable, and it showed General Symons' extreme confidence in the courage and skill of his infantry that he ventured to send only two thousand men to storm it in the teeth of a terrible and sustained fire from superior numbers. It is alleged that the commander had resolved, as the opportunity had come, once and for all to "wipe out Majuba". If that were so, his object was most fully and nobly attained through the well-directed valour of his men. As the infantry advanced, the order came for the men to go at the "double" for Smith's Farm. That point was reached with very little loss, though the enemy's fire had now become a furious storm of lead. The two batteries now took up a fresh position to the south of the hill, about two thousand yards from the Boer firing line. In the wood around the farm, which for some time marked the limit of the advance, our officers and men began to fall fast, and here the gallant and able leader received his death-wound. About half-past nine General Symons, who had galloped up to urge his men to another forward move, was hit in the stomach by a Mauser bullet, and obliged to quit the field. Three days later, the victor at Talana Hill died a prisoner of war, deeply and sincerely mourned by his Sovereign, his comrades, and all patriotic Britons.

It was about eleven o'clock, five hours from the time of the first advance of the infantry, that the men, creeping up yard by yard, and seeking every scrap of cover from the incessant fire, reached the stone wall, and there for an hour or more farther advance seemed impossible. As often as a man showed a bit of his head or body, the Boer marksmen "blazed away",

and it was past noon when the linesmen, engaged all those hours on empty stomachs, resolved on a final rush to make an end. The fire from the top of the hill had slackened, under the fire of our batteries at a mile range, and the British Infantry, scaling the wall, dashed across the terrace of open ground, and began, on hands and knees, the almost sheer ascent of the last forty yards. Falling by scores, the brave Fusiliers and Rifles won their way and carried the position with a bayonet-charge which the Boers did not await. The ground was found covered with dead and wounded men, Mauser rifles, and ammunition-cases. Boer ponies which had lost their owners were careering wildly to and fro, and the tragic and comic elements were intermingled as British infantry-men rode about on captured steeds amidst the wreck of a battle lost and won.

Talana Hill was a brilliant achievement, but it was a success dearly paid for in the loss of General Symons, and of 229 killed and wounded, including the large proportion of 32 officers. It was also marred by the escape of many Boer fugitives, within easy range of our guns, through the treacherous use of a white flag, and by the capture of Colonel Möller and two hundred men of the 18th Hussars. Before the storming of the position, that force, quitting the camp, where their services were no longer needed, moved round the hill to intercept the enemy's retreat, and came into the hands of the main Boer force to the north. Two other officers of the Hussars, and five officers of the Mounted Infantry, were taken with Möller and his men. The Battle of Dundee was a tactical, but in no wise a strategical success, being followed by a forced retreat in presence of very superior forces. After the fall of General Symons, Colonel Yule, succeeding to the command, quickly found his position untenable, and his prudent, prompt, and skilful action undoubtedly saved the little army from capture or destruction. Quitting Dundee on October 22nd, instead of taking the nearest course along the railway, which would have brought him on the enemy at Elandslaagte, Yule made a detour south-eastwards towards Helpmakaar, found the road unguarded by the enemy, and, by way of Beith and the valleys of the Waschbank and Sunday Rivers, reached Ladysmith in safety on October 26th, after a most toilsome and distressing march over country turned by rain into a quag-

mire. We must now turn to the proceedings of General White near Ladysmith, involving some of the most striking events in the earlier part of the war.

The British commander, learning the enemy's presence in force on the line to the north-east, their capture of a train, and "looting" of the stores, railway-station, and mining-office at Elandslaagte, about fifteen miles away, at once prepared for an attack. At four o'clock on the morning of October 21st, the Imperial Light Horse and a battery of Natal Artillery went out from Ladysmith, and an artillery-duel was soon in progress between the colonial guns and those of a body of Boers, about a thousand strong, posted on hills near the railway, the main force being entrenched on a ridge at right angles with the line, about a mile and a half south-east of Elandslaagte station. A beautiful scene of early morning on the veldt was presented as the men approached a stream called Modder Spruit, the yellowish brown of the landscape being streaked here and there, in low-lying spots, after the recent rain, with lines and patches of vivid green. Ahead, beyond the flat or gently undulating veldt, in the middle distance were hills peaked or flat-topped, the horizon view being that of mountains purple under clouds or light blue in the rays of the South African spring sun. The Natal guns proved to be useless against the Boer long-ranging weapons, and the commander, General French, an officer to be much seen hereafter, telephoned from the field for reinforcements. About half-past eleven two squadrons of cavalry and a battery arrived, and, when other men came up by railway, the entire force comprised some 5th Dragoon Guards, 5th Lancers, Imperial Light Horse, two field-batteries, the Devonshires, half-battalions of the Manchesters and the Gordon Highlanders, and some Natal Carabineers. About two o'clock the Boers on the ridges near the railway retired before outflanking movements of the Lancers. A frontal attack on the Boer main position was entrusted to the Devons, who were led by Major Park across the plain to the foot of the ridge held by the enemy. There our men lay in extended order, taking shelter behind ant-hills.

At half-past three General White came on the scene, when the main work of the day was about to begin, but with his usual

chivalrous generosity he declined to interfere, telling French "this is your show", and leaving to that able commander the whole conduct and credit of the day's operations. The Manchesters and the Gordons, supported by the Imperial Light Horse, were marching along a rocky spur of the main ridge to turn the enemy's left. At the start they found good cover behind the boulders, but at about three-quarters of a mile from the Boer camp they came to a patch of ground two hundred yards wide, devoid of cover and under a hail of bullets. Rushing across this, they reached cover under a shoulder of the hill, went up the shoulder to a plateau beyond, down again into a fold of the ground, and then up the final ascent. The Devonshires had meanwhile gone steadily forward, slope by slope, until they reached the precipitous face where the Boers lay thick among the boulders that gave them shelter. At a quarter to six, the scene before the final rush was grandly picturesque from the rear, as heavy thunderclouds, gathered about the hills, made a dark background for thin wreaths of white vapour following the explosion of the British shells, and for the livid-green tongues of flame darting in rapid succession from the muzzles of our guns. Heavy rain had begun to fall when, amid a roar of rifle-fire, the bugles sounded, and a general rush took the British soldiers, bayonets at the charge, cheering, stumbling, ever forward, to the top of the hill. At one point, the Manchesters and the Gordons were checked for several minutes by a fence of barbed wire, and the men fell fast before it could be cleared. The Boers fled through the gathering gloom, charged by the Lancers and by the Dragoons, who were lancer-armed. At this moment, on the right, Colonel Chisholme, commander of the Imperial Light Horse, fell dead with bullets through his head and heart, as he waved a scarf with the colours of his old regiment—the 5th Lancers—as a signal to his men.

The Battle of Elandslaagte, won as darkness closed in, was the most complete British victory of the war until the Relief of Kimberley. The enemy, losing over two hundred men in killed and wounded, left in our hands about 190 prisoners, comprising Commandant Koek, who soon afterwards died of his wounds; Piet Joubert, a nephew of the Boer General-in-chief; and Commandants Pretorius and Schiel, the latter being a German artillerist

THE CHARGE OF THE 5TH LANCERS AT ELANDSLAAGTE

Shortly after the outbreak of the war a British column under General French encountered a Boer force at Elandslaagte. The enemy were in a very strong position, but were completely routed with great slaughter. The illustration depicts the gallant charge of the 5th Lancers, whose weapons struck terror into the hearts of the Boers. In the centre is shown the brave little Bugler Sherlock, who shot three Boers with his revolver.

R. CATON WOODVILLE, R.I.

CHARGE OF THE 5th LANCERS AT ELANDSLAAGTE.

of some distinction. The other trophies of victory were three Maxim-Nordenfelt guns, the enemy's camp, transport, and commissariat, and two flags taken by the 5th Lancers, one being a Transvaal "vierkleur", the national standard, the other bearing the colours of the projected South African Federation, or United South Africa under Dutch supremacy. The capture of this last, in so early a stage of the contest, was ominous enough for superstitious Boers. The British success was purchased with the loss of 257 officers and men, of whom 42 were killed, 205 wounded, and 10 missing. The loss of officers—five killed and thirty wounded—was again very severe, the former including, besides the gallant Chisholme of the Light Horse, Major Denne and three lieutenants of the Gordon Highlanders.

We must here give a special mention to the Imperial Light Horse. This fine corps was almost wholly composed of Uitlanders from the Rand, men who had lived and laboured in the Transvaal, and whose attitude towards the war was personal as well as political. Many of them had never been under fire until the day of Elandslaagte, but many had seen fighting in Matabeleland, and all were animated by a keen remembrance of the humiliation which they, free-born British subjects, had endured as mere "helots" and "pariahs" at the hands of the insolent Boers of the Transvaal. Their two majors, Sampson and Karri Davis, had endured imprisonment for over a year rather than pay the fine to which Pretoria judges had sentenced them for their participation, as Reform leaders, in the Jameson Raid. Sampson was severely wounded in the battle just described. Colonel Chisholme, their lamented leader, had left a coveted command in the Lancers in order to organize the corps, choosing his men from among those who offered their services, and endearing himself, in his brief time of command, to all those who served under him. Before they left camp on the morning of Elandslaagte, a letter from the enemy's commando, written on behalf of Johannesburg Boers and Hollanders, was received by the senior major, expressing a wish to meet the I.L.H. in battle. The desire was complied with in such style as to render the corps ever afterwards terrible to the foes of British supremacy and equal freedom in South Africa.

A letter from a Gordon Highlander tells us how Lieut.-Col.

Dick-Cunyngham was wounded at Elandslaagte, and of his bitter regret at being disabled. When a shot-wound compelled that brave officer to sit down, he cheered on his men, crying "Forward, Gordons! The world is looking at you. Charge!" He then, in the soldier's words, "started crying because he could not longer lead his battalion, and he would not retire from the field until the day was won". A peculiar interest, from his subsequent fate, is attached to an incident concerning Lord Ava, eldest son of the Marquis of Dufferin. He had arrived at Ladysmith, and, being "unattached", and resolved to see some fighting, induced his friend, Colonel Ian Hamilton, to take him on his staff as "galloper". Having no horse, the British noble, who was in his thirty-sixth year, did his "galloping" on foot, rifle in hand, carrying orders to and fro throughout the day. His last instruction was to the Gordons, as they lay down on the veldt for shelter from the Mauser bullets and Boer shell. He brought the order for their advance, reaching them so out of breath that he could barely pass the word. Then "by way of rest after the morning's work, and as a nice quiet way of regaining his breath", as the colonel wrote in a private letter, Lord Ava joined the Gordons in their splendid attack on the rocky ridge lined with death-dealing Boers. We shall see hereafter the brave end made by this fine specimen of a British patrician.

Sir George White was being gradually enveloped by the foe in his position at Ladysmith. Not only were many thousands of the enemy pressing down from the north-east, but a large force of Free State Boers was close at hand on the north-west. The British general was soon induced to fight another battle in order to prevent the Free State forces from crossing the main-road between Glencoe and Ladysmith, and assailing the flank of Yule's retreating column, which White supposed to be coming by way of Elandslaagte. At four o'clock in the morning of October 24th Sir George quitted Ladysmith with the Devons, Liverpools, Gloucesters, 2nd King's Royal Rifles, Imperial Light Horse, Natal Volunteers, 5th Lancers, 19th Hussars, the 42nd and 53rd Field Batteries, and 10th Mountain Battery. When the head of the column came to within about three miles of Modderspruit Station, the valley was broad and

open, with the wire-fenced railway on the left, and the ground rising beyond it to a high green mountain called Tinta Inyoni. On the left front a still higher green mountain rose, double-peaked, named Matawana's Hoek. The enemy were strongly posted on these kopjes about a mile and a half west of the railway, near Rietfontein Farm. The force moved steadily on towards Modderspruit, with one battalion in front of the guns. The six-hours' action which ensued, known as the Battle of Rietfontein, was chiefly one of artillery. About half-past eight, with a brilliant sun, the air dead still, and the blue peaks of the Drakensberg seen, apparently very close, owing to the clearness of the atmosphere, through the clefts of nearer hills, a sudden boom! came as the voice of a Boer gun from the left shoulder of Matawana's Hoek. The shell fell right atop of a British gun, which was, for a second or two, in a whirl of blue-white smoke with grey-black figures plunging and struggling inside it. Then the figures grew blacker and the smoke cleared. The gun was intact; the only damage was a wounded horse. Apart at once flew the guns, the legs of the eight horses pattering along, and the weapon behind them leaping and twitching. One battery had wheeled about, and was drawn back at wide intervals facing the Boer hill. Another was making swiftly for the cover of a ridge to the left. The guns had vanished across the railway-line as a second Boer shell fell useless on the now empty veldt. Then, from across the railway, a British shell shot forth, dropping just over the enemy's gun. The cannon-fire from both forces continued, and the British infantry began to deploy. The Gloucesters and Devons wheeled half-left off the road, and split into firing-line and supports in open order, trampling through the wire-fences across the line. In front of the Boer position was a low stony ridge, and this the Gloucesters lined on the left, while the Devons took ground on the right, and the Liverpools and Rifles backed up to right and left. The British guns, on reaching the ridge, went up and pushed their muzzles across the brow, their appearance bringing a hail of bullets from the foe. Then our artillery prepared for a hot fire, the mountain-guns coming up in aid. The major gave the range as 2000 yards, and No. 1 man in each battery gently altered the elevation. No. 4 gun fired at the word from

the officer, and the shell fell a little too far. Then came the words "Nineteen hundred!" The next shell was a little short, and "Nineteen fifty" gave the exact range to the weapons, which now, yard by yard, up and down, right and left, carefully sowed with shrapnel the whole of Matawana's Hoek.

It was now a quarter-past nine, and the British guns, for an hour, completely silenced the Boer fire by missiles dropped whenever a group of the enemy showed above the sky-line. The hill-side became pale-blue with the smoke of burning veldt; in the middle of the blue appeared a patch of black, ever spreading till the whole expanse was of that hue, pitted with the brown boulders, and bordered with the blue smoke of the ever-spreading fire. The Boers then tried to get round the British left from Tinta Inyoni, at about 10·15, but they were stopped by the Natal Volunteers and the Imperial Light Horse. About an hour later, the Gloucesters went a little too far forward between the two hills, and came under a cross-fire at a few hundred yards' range. The colonel, Wilford, was shot dead, and about fifty men fell. The others sought cover, and the mountain-guns, blazing away at the spots whence the Boer fire had come, ignited the veldt afresh. The fight went on in a desultory way until a quarter-past one, the British guns always stopping the enemy when they tried to advance or to outflank. The guns then withdrew and the whole force retired, the Natal Volunteers checking further attempts of the foe to get in on both right and left. In these hours of straggling bursts of fighting, our loss was 116 killed and wounded. The Boer commando was driven westwards, and others were drawn westwards to aid it, while the Dundee force under Colonel Yule was making its way from the east. As they dragged their sore feet along the miry roads, the men were cheered by the sound of the British guns at Rietfontein, and General White's object was fully attained.

Three battles, two of which, Dundee or Talana Hill and Elandslaagte, were brilliant little victories, had enabled the British general to concentrate his force at Ladysmith, but this result might have been attained without any fighting, if the Natal authorities had accepted his strategy in the first instance. For some days following the engagement at Rietfontein, the enemy were converging on Ladysmith from the north, east, and west.

The strategic position of the town was important, as the junction of railways from the two Boer states. No place could be worse for defence than one surrounded on all sides by tiers of hills, an outer tier much too extensive to occupy, and an inner tier commanded by the outer. The reconnoitring of scouts, and observations from the war-balloons of the Royal Engineers, fitted with the telephone and the search-light apparatus, showed that the enemy were occupying hills, Bulwana and Lombard's Kop, within four miles of the town on the east, and were dragging heavy artillery up the steeps. The main source of water was cut off, but the town was, happily, provided with other ample supplies, besides the wells. At this critical time Sir George White's prescience in sending for naval guns was the salvation of Ladysmith. Foreseeing a probable investment of his force, he applied in time to the admiral in command at Durban, and on the morning of October 30th the Naval Brigade, composed of men from the cruiser *Powerful*, under Captain the Hon. Hedworth Lambton, arrived with the two famous 4.7-inch guns and the twelve-pounder which rendered service so essential during the siege.

Committed as he was to the defence of Ladysmith, the British general felt compelled in honour to strike some blows at the forces which were creeping round him. In the early morning of October 30th, two columns marched out with the object of ousting the Boers from Lombard's Kop. The advance-force was composed of the 1st and 2nd Royal Rifles, and the Leicestershire and Liverpool battalions, under Colonel Grimwood, and of a cavalry-regiment, the Border Rifles, and the Natal Carabineers, under General French, with four batteries. The reserve-column, under Col. Ian Hamilton, comprised the Gordons, Rifle Brigade, Manchesters, and 1st Devons, in position behind the long ridge joining Lombard's Kop with the Newcastle road, where the Imperial Light Horse were stationed. This force was also accompanied by four batteries. The general action to the north and east of Ladysmith, known as the Battle of Lombard's Kop or Farquhar's Farm, was a failure in its object of preventing the Boers from occupying that dominant position. The enemy, apparently aware of the British general's plans, evacuated the hill for the time, and drew Colonel Grimwood's

brigade on for six miles until it was endangered by a furious flank-attack on the left. A retirement was necessary, and severe loss was suffered from the fire of the enemy's guns of position. The naval guns made effective reply to the Boer heavy metal, and by two o'clock in the afternoon the British force was back in Ladysmith, checked at every point by foes superior in numbers and artillery.

In the meantime, a serious disaster had occurred to the left. In order to guard the left flank of the forces to be engaged at Lombard's Kop, Sir George White, on the night of Sunday, October 29th, sent out Colonel Carleton, with four and a half companies of the Gloucestershire Regiment, six companies of the Royal Irish Fusiliers, and a Mountain Battery, with directions to seize Nicholson's Nek, a gap in the hills north of Ladysmith which afforded a ready passage to the west of the town. On Monday evening the troops had not returned, and at half-past eleven at night Sir George sat down in despair and penned the noble despatch in which he announced the loss of the men and took upon himself the whole blame of what had occurred. The mules, as it proved, dragging the mountain-guns and their ammunition, and those carrying the reserve regimental rifle-cartridges, had been startled by some boulders rolling down from a hill in the dead of night, and bolted with the guns and ammunition. At daybreak, the British troops found themselves under fire on all sides from greatly superior forces, and at half-past two, when all the men's pouches were nearly empty, the position was hopeless. It is said that a wounded officer ordered the white flag to be raised at the moment when Colonel Carleton was about to order a desperate charge with the bayonet, on the entreaty of the men of both battalions. About 150 men had been killed and wounded, and nearly 900, including 45 officers, became prisoners of war. No surrender of British soldiers in such numbers had taken place since 1794, when the Duke of York, surrounded at Turcoing, north of Lille, by superior French forces, lost 1500 men as prisoners.

For two days after the fighting at Lombard's Kop there were no hostilities, but on November 2nd Sir George White, in a last effort to prevent complete investment, sent out southwards a mobile force under General French, comprising the 5th Lancers, 18th

Hussars, Natal Carabineers, and Border and Natal Mounted Rifles, with some guns. Moving out in the darkness for a reconnaisance along the road to Colenso, the men came in touch with the enemy soon after daybreak, and brisk skirmishing with Boer riflemen occupying kopjes was the only result, it being clear that communication was barred in that direction. General French therefore brought his forces back, reaching Ladysmith in time to take for Durban the very last train which got through, exposed to rifle and artillery fire from the Boers on both sides of the line, which was cut an hour later. At two o'clock telegraphic communication stopped short in the middle of an important despatch, and on the same day the bombardment of Ladysmith began from the Boer's famous Creusot gun, "Long Tom", as it was named by our men, mounted on a ridge to the east at a range of 6000 yards. One of the shells, a ninety-four pounder, mortally wounded Lieutenant Egerton R.N., instructor in gunnery of the *Powerful*, and other missiles compelled the Gordons and the Imperial Light Horse to shift their quarters. On November 3rd, General Brocklehurst, who had succeeded to French's cavalry-command, took out another flying column to the south, and brilliant valour was displayed by the Border Rifles, Imperial Light Horse, and 5th Dragoon Guards in attacks on ridges where the enemy were mounting guns. Major Taunton, of the Border Rifles, and Captain Knapp and Lieutenant Brabant of the Imperial Light Horse, were killed in operations which brought only a brief respite to the beleaguered army. Sir George White's communications with the outside world were thenceforth carried on by native "runners" who could make their way through the enemy's lines, or by pigeon-post, or, at a later time, by heliograph signals. The occupation of Ladysmith had not only put out of action ten thousand fine soldiers of all arms, and a very able commander, but tied our military affairs in South Africa, for a long time, into a knot. Relief could only come from a British force fighting its way to the rescue of the besieged. On the last day of October, Sir Redvers Buller landed at Cape Town as Commander-in-Chief, and found himself hampered at the outset by the enforced task of raising a siege, instead of pursuing the plan of invading the Orange Free State and the Transvaal in force sufficient to draw away the Boer invaders of Natal. We must now leave Natal and trace the

course of events in the central scene of operations south of the Orange River.

It was about three weeks after the inroad into Natal that Free State Boers crossed the Orange River into Cape Colony. On the morning of November 1st, the bridge at Norval's Pont, near the place where the river makes its sharp turn to the north-west, was attacked by the enemy, with the capture of a few men of the Mounted Police and some storekeepers. The telegraph-station was seized and the wires were cut. Norval's Pont railway-station, on the line running north-east from Naauwpoort Junction to Bloemfontein, was also captured, and the foe were fairly planted, in this new quarter, on British territory. On the next day (Nov. 2nd) a body of Boers crossed the river at Bethulie Bridge, about forty miles east of Norval's Pont, on the railway running north-west from Albert Junction, in Cape Colony, to Fauresmith, in Orange Free State. There were no British troops yet in that region, and the enemy rode slowly southwards, occupying Colesberg, south-west of Norval's Pont, and Burghersdorp, south of Albert Junction, by the middle of November. At Colesberg, on November 15th, a demonstration of Free State troops, about seven hundred strong, was made in presence of the colonial farmers in the district, who had been summoned to attend. The commandant, in a violent speech, adjured the colonial burghers to join the Boer cause, and to throw off the yoke of British tyranny. "War", cried this vindicator of righteousness and truth, "has been forced upon the Free State, and it was God's will that they should fight for their liberty. Those who failed to respond would be answerable to Him. The Boer arms had been hitherto everywhere victorious." A proclamation from President Steyn was then read, addressed to the inhabitants of Cape Colony. This document declared that the Free State Boers had no enemy to fight except Her Majesty's troops, and the colonial burghers would continue to enjoy freedom of property and person so long as they displayed no hostility. Supplies which were requisitioned would be paid for or a receipt given in full. The invaders then began to forage in the town, commandeering wagons, carts, and supplies from the storekeepers in Colesberg and from the farmers of the neighbourhood. Aliwal North, on the Orange River, in Cape Colony, about forty miles east of Bethulie Bridge, was also occupied. The Cape Colony

Government hereupon proclaimed martial law in the districts of Colesberg, Steynsburg, Albert, Molteno, Aliwal North, Queenstown, and in other regions of that quarter. The loyal population were anxiously awaiting the arrival of British troops from the south, or from De Aar in the west, on the line to Kimberley. It was not long before aid arrived.

On November 20th General Sir William Gatacre, whom we have seen above in the Sudan campaign, arrived by train from De Aar at Naauwpoort with a thousand men, and General French, with a force of three thousand, was at Hanover Road, a station about midway between Naauwpoort and De Aar. Major-General French had a high reputation as a cavalry-leader, belonging to a modern school of British officers which includes Babington, Brabazon, and Brocklehurst; Lord Dundonald, and Colonel Broadwood. As major in the 19th Hussars, one of the finest regiments in the service, perfect in outpost-duties and reconnaissances, French accompanied Sir Herbert Stewart's expedition across the Bayuda Desert in the Nile Campaign of 1884–85, and took part in the fierce actions at Abu Klea and Metemmeh. At Elandslaagte, he had displayed, as we have seen, the mastery with which he could handle the three arms—cavalry, infantry, and artillery—in combination, and this clear-headed, patient, prompt, and quick-sighted officer was the very man needed for the work in hand against the invaders of Cape Colony.

For some time no events of importance occurred. The Boers were active in cutting telegraph-wires and destroying railway-line, and they occupied the towns of Lady Grey and Barkly East, in the eastern region near the borders of Basutoland. A rebellious feeling among the Dutch colonists was shown in injurious action, and on November 22nd, before the enemy's arrival at Barkly East, about seventy farmers of the district seized the magazine at that town, containing three hundred Maxim rifles and four thousand rounds of ammunition. Wearing orange-coloured puggarees, they made a great demonstration of their Boer sympathies, ending with the vulgar act of riding through a bar and billiard-room in the town. On November 25th a reconnoitring party of the British forces, consisting of 150 picked men of the Mounted Infantry, cavalry, and New

South Wales Lancers, went by train northwards from Naauwpoort Junction to repair the line broken up near Arundel. On the following day, the Boer invaders occupied Stormberg, an important railway-junction north of Molteno, with about a thousand men, who spread themselves through the district on the work of enlisting colonial recruits. On November 29th, General Gatacre, having his head-quarters at Sterkstroom, sent a force to Molteno, which made a valuable seizure of a thousand bags of wheat and a great quantity of flour, in danger of being "commandeered" by the foe. The British generals, however, still lacked force to cope with the invaders, and on December 2nd the enemy entered Dordrecht, about forty miles east of Stormberg Junction. On the following day, Steynsburg, about thirty miles west of Stormberg, was entered by the Boers, and the Thebus Bridge, a substantial structure, was destroyed with dynamite. In all directions damage was being caused to railway-lines by an enemy in too great force to be checked. On December 5th Gatacre was able to welcome at Sterkstroom the arrival of reinforcements, including two field-batteries, an arm in which he had been sorely deficient. The enemy, in considerable force of men and guns, held a very strong position near Stormberg, and the British leader resolved to approach them.

At this time, General Gatacre's head-quarters were at Putter's Kraal Station, south of Sterkstroom, and on Saturday, December 9th, he left by train for Molteno, and thence advanced by a forced march of twelve miles to Stormberg with about four thousand men, including the 2nd Battalion of the Northumberland Fusiliers, the Royal Irish Rifles, 800 Mounted Infantry, and two field-batteries. The movement seems to have been intended as a reconnaissance in force, to be developed into a night-attack if opportunity served. The British troops, leaving Molteno at nine at night, marched by the light of a bright moon until half-past eleven, when the moon went down. The enterprise was altogether rash and ill-conceived. The enemy's force and true position were unknown, and the line of march was taken on information wired by a local policeman, which General Gatacre did not verify before he gave the order to start. This lack of care on the part of the commanding officer was afterwards

punished by the loss of his charge at the hands of Lord Roberts, who sent him back to military duties in England. The road taken by the force was rough and stony, partly blocked at intervals by huge boulders which had rolled from the hill-side, and the men were glad to strike off into the veldt for softer footing. After darkness fell the utmost caution was used, no light being shown, and orders being given in a whisper by the officers. The men were, unhappily, marching into a trap, and, intending a surprise, were themselves taken terribly unawares. There can be little doubt that, on this occasion, as on so many others, the enemy were well served by spies and colonial traitors, the bane of British officers and troops throughout the war, and only encouraged in their vile work by the excessive lenity of treatment which, for political reasons regardless of the lives of brave British soldiers, these wretches received from the supreme authority. The Boers were being approached, in fact, in the wrong quarter, and were aware of the line taken by their intending assailants.

At a point within two miles of Stormberg, the marching British column was suddenly attacked by a terrific fire straight ahead and on the right flank. The Irish soldiers, who were in the van, at once sought cover behind a kopje near at hand to the left, and were followed, in good order, by the artillery and the Northumberlands. The Mounted Infantry, by a circuitous movement, forced on them by the nature of the ground, reached the same place of supposed safety. Then the whole body found themselves suddenly under the fire of a powerful artillery. The British batteries took up another position half a mile away, and saved the little army from utter destruction by the accurate and sustained fire which covered the inevitable withdrawal of the infantry-men to cover whence they could reply to the enemy's attacks. The Mounted Infantry moved northwards, in order to get on the right flank of the Boers, and the infantry again shifted ground to encounter a strong commando approaching from the north. Our men were met by the heavy fire of well-placed machine-guns, and the general was compelled to order a retreat on Molteno. The Boers followed closely along the ridges of the hills, harassing the force with artillery-fire, which, owing to the skilful management of the officers, caused

little loss. The retreating remnant of the force reached Molteno about eleven o'clock on the evening of Sunday, December 10th, exhausted by thirty hours' hard work, including a hot engagement lasting three hours. The loss in this second reverse to the British arms was severe, not so much in killed and wounded as in prisoners. On return to camp, it was found that nine officers and about six hundred men of the Irish Rifles and the Northumberland Fusiliers had been cut off and captured in the movement made against the Boer force coming from the north.

On December 13th there was some warm work near Arundel Station, when a strong force of Boers, with guns, advancing southwards towards Naauwpoort, was encountered by British cavalry and a battery of Royal Horse Artillery. The fighting was at long range, and the enemy were driven back with some loss. General French, as he gained experience of the region in which he was acting, reported on it as being "very suitable for mounted troops", and that "the enemy were afraid to leave their positions if even a small detachment of cavalry were near". These observations reveal the fact that the Boers, so effective and bold against infantry on ground and under circumstances wholly favourable to their peculiar method of warfare, or, in other words, so courageous when there was little or no danger to themselves, were liable to severe attacks of "nerves" when they were exposed to the action of mounted men, and had mobile foes attacking in their own fashion. French was the man, as we shall see, to drive the lesson well home in warfare of a worrying kind. On December 18th, in a reconnaissance made by the general, with a battery of R.H.A. guns and an escort of New Zealanders, a detachment of the antipodean colonials was suddenly caught between a terrific cross-fire from kopjes near at hand. The men retired steadily, returning the fire under cover of the guns, which shelled the Boers away from the hills. The New Zealanders earned the warm praise of General French for the cool courage displayed on this occasion.

On Sunday, the last day of 1899, there was an incident which strongly showed the value of mounted men in warfare. On the previous day, Captain Montmorency, with about 120 troopers

of Brabant's Horse, made a reconnaissance northwards from Dordrecht, a town lying about thirty miles north-east from Gatacre's head-quarters at Sterkstroom. About noon the enemy were sighted in occupation of a good position on a precipitous ridge three miles from the town, and outflanking movements compelled them to retire. Then the Boers were reinforced by the arrival of six hundred men, with two guns, while the British were strengthened by a party of a hundred Cape Mounted Police. The enemy's artillery-fire, including that of a big gun which had been brought up, compelled a retirement of the British force. The movement was executed with the utmost steadiness. The mounted men were led with wonderful "dash" by Captain Montmorency, and the foe, pursuing in vastly superior force, were perplexed and kept in check by frequent demonstrations against their flanks. It was found, however, that a party of the British, detached early in the day, had been left behind. Lieutenant Milford Turner and twenty-seven men had taken shelter in a hollow or donga, where they could not be reached by the enemy's fire. When they failed to return to Dordrecht at night, it was feared that they had been captured by the Boers, and on December 31st a relief-party of 110 men, with four guns, started at daybreak under Captain Goldsworthy, and, after a smart brush with the enemy, who had both men and horses killed, nearly the whole party was brought safely back, with only four men wounded in the relieving force.

We turn to the work of General French, and find him also marking the close of the year 1899 and the beginning of the last year of the century by brilliant work in the field. At dawn on December 30th, the British commander left Arundel with five squadrons, half of the 2nd Berkshires, eighty Mounted Infantry carried in wagons, and ten guns. A detour was made in order to avoid observation, and, after a halt for four hours at a farmstead, the force, at half-past three in the morning of January 1st, 1900, occupied a kopje overlooking Colesberg from the west. The Boers were in the hills extending for six miles at a short distance south of the town. At daylight the British guns opened fire, enfilading the right of the enemy's position. The foe replied with a very hot discharge from a 15-pounder British gun, with Royal Laboratory ammunition,

from a Hotchkiss, which caused much annoyance, and from other guns. At last the artillery on the enemy's right flank was silenced, and the Boers, with severe loss from our shells, were forced to flee, leaving the Hotchkiss gun behind. The enemy, on the first attack, had been completely surprised. The Berkshires seized a hill in the dark, driving off the Boer pickets, and securing an excellent sheltered position for the R.H.A. guns. General French ended by a demonstration with cavalry and guns to the north of Colesberg, occupying the enemy's line of retreat by way of the road-bridge across the Orange River.

On the next day (January 2nd) it was found that the enemy, strongly reinforced, had reoccupied the positions from which they had been driven by our artillery on the preceding day, and they soon made their presence known by an accurate fire from guns sending shells which did not explode. The whole British loss in the two days amounted to four killed and a few wounded. The enemy, on January 1st, undoubtedly suffered severely from the British fire. This operation of war had been conducted throughout with admirable skill in the dispositions of the British commander, and though the result was of no decisive character as regarded the expulsion of the foe from British territory, the work, executed with trifling loss to our troops, was very harassing to the invaders. Their progress southwards on the much-vaunted promenade to Cape Town was effectually stayed at an early period of the campaign, and it was demonstrated that British forces of the right kind, ably led, were their masters in that scene of warfare.

On January 3rd, General French, at his special request, was reinforced by the brigade of Household Cavalry, the 1st Essex, and a battery of Field Artillery. He needed this addition to his troops. On the next day the Boers made a determined attempt to get round the British left flank. There were about a thousand men in the commando, who occupied a line of small kopjes and opened a hot fire with four guns on a position held by two companies of the Berkshires and half a battalion of the Suffolks. As the enemy advanced, the fire of four British guns drove them off to cover, and the attack was finally disposed of by cavalry and guns, threatening the enemy's right flank, and

by infantry pouring in a severe fire. After long, desultory fighting between the Berkshires and the Boers, occupying respectively the western and eastern ends of a range of hills, and a hot fire of our guns against the enemy in other positions, the foe retired across the plain towards the Orange River road. Then the British cavalry was let loose. The fire of two of the enemy's guns from a small ridge on the plain was silenced by the British artillery, and the Boers lost about fifty men in killed and wounded. The Mounted Infantry, charging one position, took nineteen prisoners. During the pursuit, Major Harvey, commanding the 10th Hussars, was killed at the head of his men. The British losses were otherwise small.

This success was followed by a somewhat serious disaster to a battalion of our infantry. On the morning of Saturday, January 6th, General French, at the urgent desire of Colonel Watson, in command of the Suffolks, allowed an attempt to be made for the seizure of a grassy hill which formed part of the enemy's position at Colesberg. The kopje lay two miles to the north-west of the town, and was well worth an effort for its possession, seeing that it commanded the whole plain to the north and north-west of Colesberg, as well as most of the town itself. There is no doubt that information of the intended attack was at once conveyed to the Boers. At midnight, Colonel Watson set forth with four companies of his regiment, the men wearing canvas shoes or marching in their socks. The night was very dark, and the way was made difficult by boulders and rocks. When the summit of the hill was reached, Colonel Watson, Major Brown, and the adjutant passed over the crest to reconnoitre. The enemy were lying, finger on trigger, behind a high *schanz*, or stone-work, in the rear of the crest. The men of the Suffolk companies had come into somewhat close order during the ascent, and the leading company was only a few yards behind the group of officers when a terrific fire was suddenly opened, killing Colonel Watson, the adjutant, two other officers, and many men. One of the companies, under Captain Brett, moved to the right, and charged into the Boer position, when a shout of "Retire!" came from the enemy, and the two rear companies, deeming it to be the order of the British leader, moved to the rear. Nearly a hundred officers and men of the two companies

in advance had fallen, and Captain Brett, with two other officers and sixty-nine men, became unwounded prisoners, while four officers and forty-four men were captured after disablement. Four officers and twenty-six men were killed in this lamentable affair. The defence behind which the Boers were lying was doubly loopholed, and so artfully concealed that it could only be discovered from a balloon or by an advance to close quarters. It was too high to be stormed from the front, except by the use of scaling-ladders. The Boer position was shelled by our guns for five hours after the failure of the attack, and many wagons were seen carrying off dead and wounded men. The misfortune of the Suffolk battalion again illustrated one of the difficulties with which our troops had to contend during the war—the presence of Boer spies and colonial traitors in camp. The movement of Colonel Watson took place only three hours after the attack had been arranged, and yet the enemy were found fully prepared, and, as in other instances, an intended British surprise became a death trap for our brave men.

On January 10th General French resumed active operations in the way of reconnoitring the enemy's positions, seeking means of surrounding them at Colesberg. A small party of the Carabineers found about eight hundred Boers in laager some five miles south-east of the town, and went up close enough to hear the enemy "talking and swearing to each other", as a news-despatch expresses it, both in Dutch and English. As our men withdrew, their presence was discovered, and a heavy fire, causing no loss, was opened. Colonel Porter, of the Carabineers, then carried out an enveloping movement with the 6th Dragoon Guards, two squadrons of Household Cavalry, the New Zealand and New South Wales contingents, and four guns. A strong position five miles east of the enemy was occupied by our artillery, cutting off retreat for the Boers on that side. Colonel Porter's force was, in fact, commanding the main road to Norval's Pont and menacing the foe's line of communication and receipt of supplies. An attack of the Boers on a kopje commanding the British position was promptly foiled by our guns.

By this time, Colesberg was invested on three sides, all the British camps being connected by the field-telegraph and the

helio apparatus. The enemy, however, were strongly reinforced, and General French needed more men to carry out his designs. On January 15th the Boers, who were being incessantly harassed by active work done with cavalry, Horse Artillery, and Mounted Infantry, made an attack on the British right flank, in order to capture some heights held by New Zealanders and a company of the Yorkshire Regiment. About eleven in the morning the enemy worked their way upwards towards a point held by the colonials, at the same time compelling the Yorkshires, by a hot fire, to keep closely in cover behind a stone wall. The advancing foe crept onwards and made a final rush, when the Yorkshires, springing from cover, charged down with the bayonet, and Captain Madocks, R.A., with a few New Zealand Mounted Rifles came up in aid from the right. The Boers fled at the sight of the steel, under a fire at close range, leaving twenty-one men dead and many wounded on the field. Many of the Yorkshires were under fire for the first time, and the conduct of all engaged was excellent. The British loss was only six killed and five wounded, the latter including Captain Orr, of the Yorkshires. Warm praise was accorded by General French to Captain Madocks, who took charge of affairs when the British leader was disabled, and gave the word for the bayonet at the critical moment of the fight.

The next incident of the warfare in this region was one unfortunate for the brave colonials from Australasia. On January 16th, a patrol of sixteen men, composed of South Australian Horse and New South Wales Lancers, fell into an ambush in mounting a kopje already occupied by the foe. The Australians, taken between two fires, made a good running fight, but were finally overwhelmed. On that evening, only two returned to camp. Another patrol, visiting the spot on the next morning, found one of the party dead and one wounded. On the ground were four dead Australian and seven Boer horses. On the same day, another of the party returned to camp; the rest, eleven in number, had become prisoners.

When we turn to General Gatacre, whose head-quarters were still at Sterkstroom, on the railway about thirty miles south-east of Stormberg Junction, we find the Boers, on January 3rd, attacking Molteno, between those points, in considerable force.

About five hundred men entered the town and then assailed the Cape Police, two hundred and fifty strong, in their camp situated two miles to the south. Large bodies of the enemy, with some guns, were on an adjacent hill. A determined resistance was made by the Police, who were soon reinforced by sixty Kaffrarian Rifles and a hundred Mounted Infantry of the 2nd Berkshire from a British camp at Bushman's Hoek. The fighting became hot when a second commando of the enemy worked round to the east of Molteno and opened fire with a heavy gun. General Gatacre, in the course of the morning, arrived from Sterkstroom with half a battalion of the Royal Scots, a hundred Mounted Infantry, and a field-battery. The force slowly wound its way up the corkscrew road towards Bushman's Hoek, while the Boers kept up a steady fire from the heights. At noon the Royal Scots began to advance across an undulating plain, to the left of which lay the little town of Cyphergat, the inhabitants of which had fled in terror when the fight began. The Boers had shelled Cyphergat Station, cut the telegraph-wires, looted the stores, and done other damage. An armoured train between Cyphergat and Sterkstroom kept the enemy at bay with Maxim fire and stayed a further advance along the line to the south.

As the British infantry drew near to the enemy on the hill beyond the plain near Cyphergat, our artillery had taken a commanding position to the left of the Boers, and, opening fire at half-past two, in ten minutes compelled the enemy to withdraw with their big gun. No attempt could be made to outflank the foe from lack of cavalry. In this quarter, there were no losses among the British troops. The attack on the Police Camp was repulsed, and the enemy finally retreated on Stormberg. Five days later (January 8th), Gatacre sent out a strong reconnoitring party, consisting of the Derbyshire regiment, two field-batteries, 400 mounted men of the Cape Police and the Berkshires, and the Kaffrarian and Frontier Rifles. The Boers were found to be still in strong occupation of two miles of the Stormberg range. On the return to head-quarters another visit was made to Molteno Mills, and all the remaining food-stuffs—meal and flour—were removed, and the vital parts of the machinery detached. On January 16th there was some skirmish-

ing with the Boers near Molteno, the British force engaged being Montmorency's Scouts and a detachment of the Cape Police. The stock of a colonial rebel's farm was captured during the day, and the force returned to Molteno with many horses, mares and foals, and oxen.

It is impossible not to remark on the contrast presented by this petty, however effective, style of warfare, rendered necessary by the long range of modern weapons, with the method of conflict prevalent up to a time when most of the nineteenth century had elapsed. Attacks in column or in close line are perforce exchanged for advances in open order, the infantry creeping slowly and cautiously forward almost *ventre à terre*, and seeking cover behind boulder, ant-hill, and bits of scrub under the hail of bullets raising dust from every part of the ground. Outflanking movements with very wide detours; ambushes, and the improvised shelter of hasty stone-work and dug trenches; and the general absence of hand-to-hand conflict, were now shown forth on a large scale as the characteristics of the stealthy and scientific, as opposed to the old grand and picturesque style when men went on in massive columns before deploying into line for the exchange of volleys at close quarters, followed by the free thrust of the deadly bayonet or the bludgeon-work of the butt-end. In no previous warfare, moreover, had mounted infantry been employed on such a scale. Our opponents, the Boers, were mounted infantry and nothing more. Most effective for the work in hand; able to pass with speed from one part of an extensive field of action to another; they were wholly unable to cope with cavalry at the charge with lances, or with infantry employing the steel which formed no part of the Boer equipment. As the struggle continued, and the need of cavalry and mounted infantry was fully recognized by the British commanders, the want was supplied by the despatch of most of the horse-soldiers in the British Isles, and by the purchase and transmission to South Africa of many thousands of "remounts" from all parts of the world. Before leaving the scene of action in this part of Cape Colony, we remark the total failure of the Boers to carry out their plans of raising Cape Colony *en masse* against British power; of mastering the lines of railway; and of proceeding in triumph to Cape Town. These purposes were frustrated by

the general loyalty of the population; by the number of the forces despatched from the British Isles and the greater colonies; by the steadfast courage of our troops; and by the general skill of the commanders, marred, indeed, in some instances by lack of experience in such warfare, and by a disdainful and dangerous undervaluing of the wily and stubborn, though not very courageous, foe.

We now pass from the central to the western scene of action, and note the operations undertaken on the march for the relief of Kimberley from the state of siege which, along with those of Ladysmith and Mafeking, will be hereafter described in detail. At the very outset of the war, Boer forces made a rush for the diamond-town, eager at once to seize the sources of wealth around that centre, and to lay hands on the hated Cecil Rhodes, who, as we shall see, had boldly thrown in his lot with that of the beleaguered citizens. Early in November arrangements were made for an advance in force to the relief of the town, and the troops were placed under the command of Lieutenant-general Lord Methuen, who left Cape Town for the north with his staff on November 10th. Paul Sanford, third Baron Methuen, K.C.V.O., C.B., C.M.G., was born in 1845, and entered the Scots Guards in 1864. After serving on the Gold Coast, in Ashanti, and in Ireland, he proceeded as Military Attaché to Berlin, where from 1877 till 1881 he made a profound study of German tactics. In the Bechuanaland campaign of 1884–85 he put his knowledge into practice with much success as leader of the famous "Methuen's Horse". Then, and as Deputy-adjutant-general at the Cape in 1888, he gained the acquaintance with South Africa which, combined with his reputation as a very smart tactician, obtained for him appointment as commander of the First Division in the South African Field Force. From 1892 onwards Lord Methuen was in command of the Home District, and was constantly before the public as a military organizer, and as a special friend and champion of the volunteer movement. The force with which he now advanced to meet the redoubtable Commandant Cronje and his Boers included a brigade of Guards and the Northumberland Fusiliers, the Yorkshires and the Northamptons, and a Naval Brigade, and was afterwards reinforced, as will be seen, by several Scottish bat-

talions. The heavy loss of officers in the Natal campaign, largely due to their being easily picked out by Boer marksmen from their special equipment, caused Lord Methuen to issue a salutary order for his battalion-commanders and their subordinates to discard the sword, to carry a rifle, and to make their dress in action as nearly as possible like that of their men.

Some sharp work had occurred before the British commander reached the front. On November 10th Colonel Gough made a reconnaissance from Orange River, near Hopetown, to the north, with two squadrons of the 9th Lancers, a battery of Field Artillery, and some Mounted Infantry. He found about 700 Boers, with a gun, in a laager on a great semicircular ridge three miles west of Belmont, a station on the line to Kimberley. Three hours' fighting ensued, mostly at long range, and in the course of the action the Mounted Infantry tried to get round the enemy's left flank and seize the laager. The result was very unfortunate. The force came under a heavy and unexpected fire from some Boer skirmishers, and Lieutenant Wood, of the 1st Royal North Lancashire, and Lieut.-colonel Keith-Falconer were killed. Two lieutenants of the Northumberland Fusiliers and two privates were wounded. Keith-Falconer, of the Northumberland Fusiliers, had received brevet-rank as colonel for his services in the Sudan campaign of 1897–98. Wood was under fire for the first time. These earliest victims of the advance to Kimberley were buried by the Orange River at a pretty spot below a kopje overlooking the camp, their graves being marked by a cairn of white stones.

This opening of the campaign in the west was to be followed by a series of encounters, two of which were sharp enough, one very long and fierce, and one of a disastrous character for the British force engaged. The action known as the Battle of Belmont, fought on November 23rd, really took place mostly at Kaffir's Kop, some ten miles east of the line at Belmont Station. On Tuesday, November 22nd, Lord Methuen moved out with his force, about seven thousand men, to Witte Puts Station, nearly half-way from his head-quarters at Orange River Station to Belmont. By dawn on the following day the troops were drawn up opposite the enemy's lines, extending along a series of hills covering ten miles of ground. The position was for-

midable, being strongly entrenched, and commanded the road north towards Kimberley. Towards seven o'clock an artillery-fire, maintained for two hours in a desultory way, ceased altogether, and then the British guns, quickly finding the range, opened with battery after battery on the Boer entrenchments, in order to cover an advance of the infantry. The Grenadier Guards and the Northumberland Fusiliers led the way under a heavy fire and carried the enemy's first line with a rush, the Grenadiers using the bayonet. The Boers fought on this occasion with good courage, their guns being splendidly and doggedly served until forced to withdraw by the infantry-charge. On a second kopje to the rear, the same resistance was made, but the hill was stormed with "deadly earnestness", in the words of a Canadian journalist who was present. The third hill saw the most determined stand of the enemy, who, after a heavy shrapnel-fire from our guns had prepared the way for an assault, poured in a terrible fire as the British troops went up. Officer after officer was struck down and the men fell fast, but the enemy were driven off by the final rush, fleeing wildly after five minutes at close quarters and more than a taste of the bayonet. The victory would have been more decisive if cavalry had been at hand for pursuit. The "dash" of our troops had been as fine as was ever displayed in war, the men constantly cheering as they pressed forward under a hail of lead. The Scots Guards went into action with the band playing, and mounted the second line of kopjes to stirring strains. The enemy's loss, as usual, could not be estimated, the greater part of the killed and wounded being conveyed away by their comrades; but the victors buried a good number of Boers, and took about fifty prisoners, including some officers, along with many horses, horned cattle, and sheep. Much ammunition found in the enemy's laager was destroyed. The British loss reached about 220, including 24 officers killed and wounded, the chief battalions to suffer being the 3rd Grenadier Guards, the 1st Coldstreams, the 1st Scots Guards, and the 1st Northumberland Fusiliers.

Two days after Belmont, on November 25th, came the Battle of Graspan or Enslin. The enemy had taken up a fresh position at Graspan, six miles north of Belmont on the railway, to bar the advance to Kimberley. They were posted on kopjes mostly

over 200 feet in height, furrowed with trenches, and having the ground in front carefully measured and marked for the fire-range. The armoured train advanced slowly in front of the British column, and was already in action when the troops reached the battle-field. Lord Methuen deployed his cavalry on the flanks, while the batteries took up positions to shell the Boer trenches. The action began at six in the morning, and the Boer guns, skilfully posted and well served, made a smart reply to our shrapnel-fire, sending shell after shell to burst right over our guns, where the men stuck bravely to their work. Then the guns were withdrawn a little in order to disturb the enemy's range, and the artillery-duel was resumed. The infantry then moved forward, the Northamptons working round to the right, where they were joined by the Northumberlands and Yorkshires. About nine o'clock a general assault was delivered, the men swarming forward in splendid style under a scourging fire. As the British went nearer, they took cover as they could, returning the enemy's fire, and, going steadily ahead, drove the Boers from their first position. During their retreat across the plain, the Lancers pursued a body of the foe, and overtook their rear close to another kopje alive with their men, whose bullets forced our horsemen to retire. At the second line of kopjes a fierce contest was fought out, the heaviest work falling on the Royal Marines. Their officers were falling fast, but the men clambered fearlessly up and over the huge boulders, and the Boers again fled to the plain, but the 9th Lancers were now unable to pursue owing to the wearied condition of their horses.

At an early period of the action, our rear was attacked by some hundreds of Boers, but they were driven off by the Guards' Brigade, who also protected both flanks. The Marines, acting with the Naval Brigade, were under the command of Flag-captain Prothero, and suffered the severe loss of two officers killed and one wounded out of five, while six men were killed and eighty-two wounded out of two hundred and six. The Blue-jackets lost two officers killed and one wounded out of twenty-one, and two men killed and thirteen wounded out of two hundred. The chief honours of the day thus rested with the marines and sailors, the 2nd Yorkshire Light Infantry and the 1st Lancashire also gaining special distinction. The total British casualties

were nearly two hundred, of which more than half befell the Marines and the Naval Brigade, including among the slain Commander Ethelston, of the *Powerful*, Captain Senior, of the *Monarch*, and Major Plumbe, of the Marines, with Midshipman Huddart, of the *Doris*. The real loss of the Boers was, as usual, unknown. About twenty of their dead were buried by the victors, and they were known to have about fifty wounded.

Three days later, on November 28th, occurred the fiercest engagement up to that time during the war—that known as the battle of the Modder River. At half-past four in the morning an advance was made, with the Coldstreams, the Scots Guards, and the Grenadiers on the right, and the 9th Brigade on the left, comprising the Yorkshire Light Infantry, the Northumberlands, the Northamptons, the Loyal Lancashires, the Mounted Infantry, and the 9th Lancers. Naval guns and field-batteries aided the two brigades. After a march of over four miles, a long, thin fringe of trees was viewed, marking the course of the unseen Modder River, a stream from twenty to thirty yards wide, at the bottom of the deep bed which it has cut in the level veldt—a huge canal, invisible till the edge was reached, that edge being now barred against the British force by three miles of Boers lying in entrenchments. On hills about two miles beyond the river the enemy's guns were posted, and on both the north and the south banks the Modder River village was occupied in force, the Boers being hidden away amongst the buildings erected mainly for the convenience of pleasure-seekers from Kimberley. On the east of the railway, to the British right, the Riet River, after flowing from south to north, makes a turn west and receives the Modder.

As the four-mile British line went on, hares scurried away, a flock of bustards rose in clumsy flight, and the little birds called "thick-heads" shot up, cried "Hui!" and dropped back among the sage-plants. It was a brilliant summer morning on the veldt. The battle began about seven a.m., when the British Mounted Infantry chased some hundreds of Boer horsemen on our extreme right, and were met by fire from a gun concealed beside a little mudhouse, which brought our 18th Battery into action. An artillery-duel at once began along the four or five miles of line on each side, and the Guards Brigade, in the usual extended

ARGYLL AND SUTHERLAND HIGHLANDERS CROSSING THE MODDER RIVER

Having routed the Boers at Belmont and Gras Pan, Lord Methuen's column advanced to the Modder River. The Boers were strongly entrenched on the north side of the river, and their position could only be approached from the south across a wide stretch of level country. The British troops gallantly advanced to the attack, crossing the flat ground by short rushes, between which they lay prone and kept up a hot fire on the Boer trenches. At last the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders made a bold dash across the river and gained a footing on the north bank. The illustration shows the men in the act of crossing.

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ARGYLL AND SUTHERLAND HIGHLANDERS CROSSING THE MODDER RIVER.

order, went carefully on towards the river. Many men fell under a heavy fire, and the Maxim detachment of the Scots Guards is described, in Lord Methuen's report, as "completely wiped out". The Riet River prevented any further advance, and, with the British troops lying down in fairly good cover, the battle in this quarter became nothing but a rifle-match, continuing, with two brief intervals, from ten in the morning until past six o'clock in the evening. Each of the British Guardsmen started out with 150 to 160 rounds, and many boxes and bags of cartridges were sent creepingly to them during the afternoon. An attempt was made to cross the river and outflank the enemy's left, but the fire was too hot and the water too deep. The rain of bullets from the Boers was such that many of the British wounded, being crippled, lay flat on the ground for hours, not daring to crawl back for help. If the head or a hand were for a moment raised, it became a mark, and it was impossible for stretcher-bearers to get near disabled men. We must now see what was passing on the left of the battle.

The Northumberlands advanced along the east side of the railway, supported by half a battalion of the newly-arrived Argyle and Sutherland men, while the Yorkshires, with the rest of the Scottish battalion, were on the west of the railway, with the Lancashires prolonging the line to the left, seeking to cross the Modder and to threaten the enemy's right flank. The advance of the brigade was checked by the fire from an outcrop of rocks and small kopjes on the northern bank of the river, much in advance of the enemy's main position there, and by that from a farmhouse and kraal to the east, covering the dam and the drift, or ford, at the west end of Modder village. The 75th Battery and three guns of the 18th, with the heavy pieces of the Naval Brigade, were of great service in this part of the battle, and at about half-past two some of the Yorkshires, Highlanders, and Northumberland Fusiliers got across the river and drove out the enemy in the west of the village. The Lancashires at the same time stormed the kopjes and rocks on the extreme left, and the Boer right flank was thus turned. It was about half-past five in the afternoon when Lord Methuen received a flesh wound in the right thigh which disabled him for some days, and he gave over the command to Major-general Colvile.

The ten hours' battle ended at dusk with the sheer exhaustion of the combatants. The British artillery, composed of 22 guns after the arrival of a fresh field-battery at 3 p.m. from Orange River, had fired on an average 200 rounds per gun. The Guards, the Yorkshires, and the artillery, in particular, had been under a terrific fire all day without food or water except what they carried with them into action. At nightfall the enemy were still in possession of most of the village. A touching incident of the struggle was that connected with Captain Earle, of the Grenadier Guards, after he had been thirteen hours at work, under fire most of the time, and without food. He then saw a riderless horse which he recognized as that of his brother, Captain S. Earle, of the Coldstreams. Overcome by the sudden shock of what this sight portended, and exhausted by his exertions in the terrible heat, he was just able to cali on his company to charge before he fell senseless. His brother had, as he feared, been killed. The total British loss in the battle of Modder River was four hundred and seventy-five. Sixty-eight non-commissioned officers and men were killed, three hundred and seventy-seven wounded, and seven found missing. The four officers killed were Colonel Northcott, of the staff, Colonel Stopford and Captain Earle, of the 2nd Coldstreams, and Lieutenant Long, of the 2nd Yorkshire Light Infantry. Nineteen officers, including Lord Methuen, were wounded. The regiment that suffered most severely was the Argyle and Sutherland Highlanders, who had, as we have seen, only just reached the front. With two officers wounded, they lost, in all, one hundred and twelve men. The 2nd Coldstreams, with two officers and ten men killed, and a third officer and fifty-six men wounded, came third on the list of casualties. The Boer commander, with mendacity due to a desire to hide the truth from his countrymen, returned his loss at eighteen dead. The battle ranks fairly as a British victory, as the enemy abandoned the field during the night. At five o'clock on the morning of Wednesday, November 29th, the British guns fired three shrapnel-shells into the village. No response was made, and a company of the North Lancashires, with the Lancers, entered the place and found it empty. The British troops accounted for about 160 dead Boers, and there can be no doubt that many others were borne away by the enemy or down the river. In one trench

forty-three dead were found, and for two days after the engagement our men were busy interring Boers whom they found along the banks and in the river.

For some days after the battle, Lord Methuen was receiving reinforcements and supplies for a further advance, and establishing posts on his lines of communication. The Boers were troublesome for a time in his rear, having blown up railway-culverts near Graspan Station. On December 7th the Northamptons garrisoned Enslin, and fell back on the railway-station at Graspan when the enemy opened fire on the pickets. The Boers, about a thousand strong, with one gun, then advanced and took up a position commanding the British camp round the station on all sides, checked only to the eastward by a company of the British regiment strongly posted on a kopje. The enemy's rifle-fire and that of their gun were very accurate, and only the solidity of the stone-built station-house protected the garrison. A telegram brought up the 12th Lancers and a field-battery, the men, after covering 21 miles of ground, arriving before midnight and forcing the enemy to retire by a well-directed fire and an advance of our horse.

On December 7th a new railway-bridge across the Modder River was completed, with a needful deviation of the line, and Lord Methuen's head-quarters were established in Modder River village, the whole line of the river previously held by the Boers being strongly fortified and armed with guns. The British force had now been joined by men of the Canadian and Australian contingents, who did zealous work in forming sidings and erecting platforms, in addition to the usual routine-duty of a camp. The enemy had by this time occupied a strong position at Magersfontein, to the north-east, and their trenches there were bombarded on December 10th by our howitzer-battery and a 4.7-inch naval gun, firing lyddite, shrapnel, and common shell. The Boers replied from about a dozen guns, and the artillery-fight was very lively for a time. It could be seen that the enemy's position was very formidable, being semicircular, with the horns pointing towards the Modder River. Their main position was to the east of the railway, with lines of strong shelter-trenches constructed at the base of a high range of hills having several walls higher up the slope. Such was the scene

of the action of December 11th, 1899, a black day in the annals of the British Army, and especially in the records of the gallant Highland Brigade.

The battle of Magersfontein was rather a butchery than a fight, and, for the Highlanders, was more disastrous than any event in their whole history in the British service since that of Ticonderoga, in North America, in 1757, when the 42nd Regiment (Royal Highlanders, or Black Watch), fighting against the French under the able General de Montcalm, suffered as has been recorded in the first volume of this history. On the evening of Sunday, December 10th, the Highland Brigade moved out of camp to the north-east towards a spur on the enemy's left. They were nearly three thousand strong, under General Wauchope, comprising the 2nd Royal Highlanders or Black Watch, the 1st Highland Light Infantry, the 1st Gordons, and the 2nd Seaforths. They moved cautiously through the darkness, not in extended order, but, by a fatal mistake of their brave commander, in quarter-column, a formation simply suicidal in presence of an enemy whose exact position and distance had not been ascertained. All other due precautions were taken, orders being passed in a whisper along the ranks, and nothing else heard except the brushing of the doomed men's feet in the veldt grass, and their deep-drawn breathing as they moved along. About three o'clock on Monday morning a soldier tripped over the hidden wires laid down by the enemy. In an instant their search-lights fell on the ranks of the Highlanders, still in close order, within fifty yards of the nearest Boer trenches, and a deadly fire of rifles at that point-blank, pistol-shot range opened on the front and the right flank. The scene was appalling. Two hundred men or more were at once mown down, including General Wauchope, riddled with bullets. The gallant chieftain, already bleeding to death, struggled up on his hands and knees, cheered his men forward, and then fell over to rise no more.

The brigade had already broken into open order, and charged with a yell of rage that was heard in the British camp below. The men, as they rushed on, were caught round the legs by the wires, and floundered and staggered, always under the deadly fire, until they were forced to fall back, leaving hundreds of dead and wounded men on the ground. Much of the best chivalry

of Scotland had fallen, the loss of officers in the brigade reaching the awful total of fifty-three, of whom twelve were killed, thrice that number wounded, and five found "missing". Meanwhile, the Guards in the centre, and the cavalry and mounted infantry on the left, with the howitzer-battery, had met with no better success, without incurring the same terrible loss. The flanks were duly protected by the field-guns. Nothing whatever could be done towards capturing a position held by foes who could not be seen, but only felt in the shape of bullets and shells, men against whom an advance could be made only over open ground. The British guns, beyond doubt, did much mischief on the hill and in the valleys beyond among the Boers reached by shrapnel from the field-guns and by the lyddite shells of the naval gun, fired in accordance with signals made from the war-balloons floating above the scene of action. The Guards at one point in a brilliant charge reached the enemy's trenches and slew many men with the bayonet, but were then obliged to retire by the bullets and shell poured down from the heights above them. In another trench forty-seven Boers were killed in the same way by the Highlanders. Apart from the Highland Brigade, two British officers were killed, twelve wounded, and one was taken prisoner. The list of slain included Major the Marquis of Winchester, of the 2nd Coldstreams; Colonel Coode, commanding the 2nd Black Watch; and Colonel Goff, of the 1st Argyle and Sutherlands. Of the whole British loss, reaching nearly nine hundred, six hundred and fifty had fallen in the Highland Brigade.

The funeral of General Wauchope, one of the bravest and most lovable of mankind, was a most impressive and affecting sight. He was laid to rest as the sun was sinking on December 13th, in a spot three hundred yards in rear of the little township at Modder River. Close by a long shallow grave prepared in the veldt, lay fifty of his dead Highlanders, dressed as they had fallen on the field of battle, in the plaids of every Highland clan. The pipes announced the approach of the chieftain's body, attended by the remnant of the brigade in full costume, moving with slow and solemn tread to the strains of "The Flowers of the Forest". There were looks of defiance towards the foe, mingled with hot tears, and with choking sobs from heaving

breasts. The dead commander was succeeded in his post by Brigadier-general Hector Macdonald, C.B., a hero risen from the ranks, a "Gordon" distinguished in the Afghan campaign and the former Transvaal war, in Egypt, and, as we have seen, in the Sudan, of recent fame for his tactical skill and noble constancy displayed in command of an Egyptian brigade at the battle of Omdurman. Among the incidents of the battle of Magersfontein, illustrating the cool courage of British officers and men, we may mention two. A commanding officer, wishing to ascertain the position of the enemy, mounted a Maxim gun and leisurely made his observations under a perfect hail of bullets. A corporal of the Seaforth Highlanders, taken prisoner, was disarmed and placed by his captors in the trenches, under charge of one of their comrades. When the Boers who took him had retired, the "Scottie" suddenly drew the bayonet from his own rifle in the hands of his guard, gave him a "dig", seized the rifle, and escaped back to the British lines.

After the serious repulse at Magersfontein on December 11th, Lord Methuen withdrew to his entrenched position on the northern side of the Modder River, awaiting reinforcements and strengthening the works. Few events occurred in this quarter of the vast field of action during the lull in hostilities which followed the British reverse. On December 13th the enemy sought to check our further advance by blowing up two culverts on the railway about a mile and a half north of the Modder. Cannon fire was exchanged between the two positions, and on December 20th a British naval twelve-pounder planted a shell amidst a group of Boers, inflicting severe loss. In this part of the scene of warfare, matters had come to a dead stop. The enemy, in one impregnable position, barred the way to Kimberley. The British force, in another impregnable position, barred the way southwards. Christmas-day was pleasantly spent in our camp, where the men were in good health and spirits, and eager for further work which could not then be afforded them.

On New-year's Day, 1900, a fine piece of work on a small scale was accomplished by a force under the command of Colonel Pilcher, of the Bedfordshire Regiment. The loyal part of the population of Douglas, a pretty little town lying away about

forty miles north-west of Belmont Station, had been for many weeks exposed to insults and threats from the rebels of the district, supported by the presence of a Boer commando in a laager at Sunnyside, about ten miles south-east of the town. The British commander was resolved to "look up" the enemy and endeavour to change the state of affairs for the Queen's loyal and faithful subjects in that district. At mid-day on December 31st, the men selected for this enterprise left Belmont and marched westwards, covering twenty miles before sunset, and encamping at Cook's Farm, where they received a hearty welcome. The mounted force consisted of 200 Queenslanders under Colonel Ricardo; the Toronto Company of a hundred Canadians under Captain Barker, with two guns and a horse-battery under Major de Rougemont; forty Mounted Infantry under Lieutenant Ryan, of the Munster Fusiliers; and the New South Wales Ambulance, under Surgeon-major Dodds. Two hundred of the Cornwall Light Infantry followed on foot, and passed the night in an entrenched position. At six o'clock in the morning of January 1st the mounted force advanced towards the point where a Boer and rebel laager had been reported to be. Colonel Pilcher found that the enemy's position was on a line of strong kopjes, with the laager situated at the foot of a hill. De Rougemont's men and guns, with the Mounted Infantry, were sent off to make a turning movement on the north to the right, while the commander, with the Queenslanders, advanced slowly towards the southern end of the enemy's position. A patrol of four men under Lieutenant Addie, of the Queensland Mounted Infantry, moving to the east, came suddenly upon a dozen Boers, whose fire severely wounded the leader. A man named Butler gave up his horse to carry his officer away, and another man, named Rose, whose horse had bolted, bravely returned to help the lieutenant, receiving a bullet in his leg, while his horse was killed.

Meanwhile Lieutenant Ryan, of the Mounted Infantry, whose work was admirable throughout the day, reported the veldt to the north, on the enemy's left, to be clear of foes, and Major de Rougemont at once took his guns at a trot to within 1500 yards of the laager. In two minutes, two shells were planted among the enemy's tents. The surprise for the Boers was com-

plete, and they were seen hastily streaming up the kopje, whence they opened a well-aimed fire on the guns. The Toronto Company, receiving the order to advance at the double, greeted it with a deep-drawn joyful cry "At last!" and rushing forward to within a thousand yards of the enemy, opened a hot fire which completely subdued that of the Boers. The Canadian guns were maintaining an accurate delivery of shells, and Ryan, with his Mounted Infantry, worked completely round and attacked some of the foe hidden among bushes. All this time, Colonel Pilcher, with the Queenslanders, was working steadily and quickly, keeping under cover, towards the enemy, the men firing only when they could see a mark for their bullets. This kind of advance was trying severely the nerves of the men assailed, and the direct attack of a company led by Colonel Ricardo completed their discomfiture. The laager was finally captured with forty prisoners, the whole casualties among the victors being only three killed, three wounded, and one missing. It was a clean, complete, and beautiful little achievement, and is described here at greater length than its actual importance may seem to justify, partly because the operations well illustrate how the Boers could be beaten by the use of proper tactics, and partly on account of the excellent conduct of our colonial cousins, the men of Canada and Australasia.

The Toronto Company remained in the laager and joined the main body on the morning of January 2nd, bringing the whole of the Boer tents and the other "loot" in wagons. The Cornwalls under Major Ashby arrived after a splendid march across the veldt, and the force under Colonel Pilcher entered Douglas after another march, and raised the British flag amidst the cheers of the loyalists among the population. The rebels, who had for six weeks been governing the district with the help of a Free State commando, had been entirely dispersed. A quantity of ammunition was captured and burned. As it was impossible for the British troops, for military reasons, to remain in occupation of the town, the loyalists, on January 3rd, departed for Belmont with their goods, under guard of the troops and in the military wagons. The escort of Canadians carried the babies and enlivened the march with merry songs, the Mounted Infantry and the guns bringing up the rear. In this successful

little expedition, the force, on the first day, marched twenty-one miles; on the second day, the men covered twenty and had their fight with the Boers; on the third day, they did fifteen miles, and, on the fourth, twenty-four. Horses and men lived on the country, paying all loyal farmers for food and forage, and punishing the disloyal colonists by consuming their goods.

On January 9th, the Orange Free State was invaded by British troops for the first time during the war. The force, numbering nearly 2000 men, was made up of the 9th and 12th Lancers, Mounted Infantry, and a battery of Royal Artillery under Major-general Babington, starting from Modder River; the Canadians and Australians under Colonel Pilcher, from Belmont; and a third party under Major Byrne, consisting of the Munster Fusiliers, the Lancashires, and the Scots Greys. The last body advanced to within four miles of Jacobsdal, when the pickets were fired on by the enemy. The Victorians, from Australia, made their way, without meeting any foe, for twenty miles inside the Free State border. The men under Babington destroyed some houses belonging to the commandant in the Jacobsdal district, because they had been used for storing the enemy's supplies. The country was found to be well suited for the movements of mounted men, and the work done by the Lancers displayed the excellent training given by the commanding officers—Lord Airlie, of the 12th, and Major Little, of the 9th Lancers. Open country was found towards Bloemfontein, and the whole reconnaissance paved the way, as will be seen, for an invasion in force at no distant day. On January 5th a post had been established, for the first time during the campaign, in the enemy's country, by the occupation of Zoutpansdrift, in the Free State, just beyond the Orange River, by General Wood with a force of all arms. Towards the end of January, the news from Lord Methuen's force was that his guns were bombarding the Boers in his front with lyddite shell. We must now turn our attention to the sieges in which the valour and skill of British fighting men and their commanders were, in some instances against overwhelming odds, winning for the empire new renown, and conferring on the beleaguered towns a lasting place in historical records.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA (1899–1900).—*Continued.*

KIMBERLEY, its position and importance — Attacked by the Boers — Preparations for defence—The De Beers Company's work—Arrival of Mr. Rhodes—Feeling at Kimberley against Mr. Schreiner—Colonel Kekewich, his services in the defence—The town fortified—Vryburg seized by the enemy—Tragical end of the commandant, Major Scott—Kekewich's proclamation—Close investment of Kimberley—Arrival of news from town at De Aar—The defending force—Attitude of townspeople—A vigorous sortie—defeat of the Boers—Demeanour of Mr. Rhodes—Plants a new avenue—Enemy explode dynamite-stores near town—Bombardment of Kimberley—Mortal wound of Major Scott-Turner—Occurrences in December—Heavy bombardment in January—Good work of De Beers Company—Provision of food and water—A 30-pounder gun made—Energetic doings of Mr. Rhodes—His generous treatment of townspeople—The enemy's shell-fire—A terrible new Boer gun—Mr. Labram killed—Signalling of Boer big shells—Marvellous escapes—Women and children lowered into mines—MAFEKING, its position—The commandant, Baden-Powell — His career and character — His work in defence of town—The defending force—Preparations against siege—Arrival of Boer force—Their mishap with dynamite — The brave British engine-driver — Sharp fighting outside town—Heroic conduct of Captain FitzClarence—The brave Mafeking lady-sharp-shooters — Snyman's summons to surrender — B.-P.'s sarcastic reply — Boys in defence of town—Exchange of messages between B.-P. and Cronje—Bombardment with heavy gun—Repulse of Boer attack—Fine sortie by FitzClarence—He wins the V.C.—Colonel Walford's repulse of enemy—Baden-Powell's skill in defence—His great moral influence—His restless energy—His policy of sorties—Wily stratagems against Boers—Departure of Cronje for south—B.-P.'s irritating letter to Boers—His unsuccessful attack on Game-Tree Fort—Treachery at work against British—Heavy loss of besieged—Heavy bombardment of town—Cowardly shelling of women's laager — Incidents of siege — The food question — Prices current — Admirable foresight of government contractors—Services of Baralong natives.—Affairs at TULI—Action of Colonel Plumer—He invades Transvaal territory—Siege of KURUMAN—brave defence—Captured by Boers—A solitary success in their sieges—Sir George White's force at LADYSMITH—Bombardment by Boers—Attack on our lines (Nov. 9th)—A ruse of the Rifle Brigade—Repulse of enemy with heavy loss—The Prince of Wales' birthday-salute—Severe bombardment—Boer capture of oxen—Cowardly firing at British hospitals—Sir Archibald Hunter's brilliant sortie (Dec. 7th, 8th)—Storming of Gun Hill—Destruction of enemy's guns—Sir George White's praise of Natal troops—Sortie against Surprise Hill (Dec. 10th)—Destruction of Boer howitzer—Heavy British loss in retiring—Enteric fever in Ladysmith — Intense heat—Severe bombardment — Danger of General White — Casualties due to shells—Escapes from injury—a shell among footballers—Ladysmith at close of year—Advance of Boers to south—Seizure of Colenso—Insolent proclamation of Mr. Steyn—Natal governor's reply—British work at Fort Wylie—Officers in command of troops, Generals Hildyard and Clery—The destruction of armoured train near Chieveley (Nov. 15th)—Boer advance south—Arrival of Bethune's Horse for British—Fighting near Mooi River—Arrival of Sir Redvers Buller in chief Natal command—Fighting near Estcourt at Willow Grange and Beacon Hill—Final retreat of Boers to Colenso—They destroy railway-bridges there and at Frere—Wanton damage done by Boers—Arrival of naval guns for Buller—His preparations for an advance—Troops under Buller's command—March northwards from Chieveley camp—Enemy's strong position on the Tugela—Ar-

rangement of British force for attack—Buller's plan—The battle of Colenso (Dec. 15th)—Failure of Hart's attack—Heavy British loss—The centre-battle—Hildyard's advance checked—The loss of ten guns—Heroic attempt at rescue of guns—Death of Lieut. Roberts—Buller and his staff under fire—Failure of attack on right—Previous career of young Roberts—British guns destroy Colenso road-bridge—Christmas-day in Chieveley camp—Arrival of Sir Charles Warren—His previous career--Despatch of Sixth Division—Career of General Kelly-Kenny—Position of affairs in South Africa at close of 1899—The three reverses—Reception of news in British Isles and great colonies—Effect of Boer successes on Britons—The grand uprising of the empire—Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener sent out—Great military preparations—Embodiment of Militia—Enthusiasm of Volunteers—Formation of "Imperial Yeomanry"—The City of London Imperial Volunteers—The greater colonies, Australasia and Canada—India and Ceylon—The new Canadian contingent and guns—Colonial subscriptions to funds—Lord Strathcona's Horse—The native princes in India—Loyalty shown in Cape Colony and Natal—The South African contingents—Composition of Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Divisions—Greatness of the "South African Field Force"—Great reinforcement of artillery—Calling out of "Reserves"—Success of recruiting at home.

The town of Kimberley, belonging to Cape Colony since the incorporation of Griqualand West, has been already described in these pages. We may here add that, apart from the diamond-mines, the place is important to travellers and to "up-country" traders as a starting-place and emporium for the interior, and that it is about 650 miles from Cape Town by the railway through De Aar Junction, and 230 miles, on the same line, south of Mafeking. Lying close to the western border of Orange Free State, the town was made, as we have above stated, an object of immediate attack, and within a day or two of the issue of the ultimatum there were some thousands of burghers on the adjacent border, with some field-guns. The defence of Kimberley had been rendered possible only by the fact that the inhabitants had refused to be lulled into false security by the attitude and advice of Mr. Schreiner, the Premier of Cape Colony. In spite of derision they deliberately made preparations against a day of need. The initiative in the matter was taken, of course, by the great De Beers Company. Months before the outbreak of war, repeated application was made to the colonial government for weapons wherewith to defend the town and the mines. Mr. Schreiner, the leader of a Dutch majority in the House of Assembly, sneeringly replied that, so far as he knew, Kimberley was in no danger. Guns that were known to be in the country, and to be intended for the "Diamond Fields Artillery", were kept for weeks hidden away at some obscure

railway-siding, and it became clear that it was useless to expect help from the colonial Cabinet. The De Beers Company, formed by Mr. Cecil Rhodes, at once set about secretly arming the thousands of white men in their employment, and diamond-digging, washing, and sorting were varied by diligent drilling. Guns, large and small, were obtained, and not only was a complete battery of artillery formed, but cannon were planted in suitable positions on the heaps of débris from the mines surrounding the town. This stuff, accumulated at a good distance from the buildings, was ready for the formation of excellent redoubts and entrenchments, and the place was soon fairly well fortified.

Mr. Rhodes made his final atonement for his part in the Jameson Raid by resolving to share the risks of his own people during a siege, and he arrived in the town during the night of October 12th. The Cape premier, who had allowed rifles and ammunition to pass through to Orange Free State, by whose armed men they were employed in making British widows and orphans at Kimberley, was enjoying the comforts and luxuries of the capital. There was a strong feeling at the "Diamond Town" that, since Mr. Schreiner and his colleagues contended, until the very last moment, that nothing was to be feared from the Boers, in this declaration they were either speaking as men utterly deceived, or had deliberately lied, and that in either case they were unfit to be trusted with the rule of Cape Colony. Lieutenant-colonel Kekewich, commander of the 1st Battalion Loyal North Lancashire Regiment, a man who has not received his due meed of recognition and praise for his eminent services in this famous siege, was entrusted with the direction of the defence, and he showed the utmost energy and great ability in his responsible position. After the erection of works on all sides, trees were felled, and the bush cleared away, so as to give a good field for firing, and in the earliest days, before any attack was made, the artillery were making excellent practice at ranges of 2500 to 3000 yards. With the rifle, recruits who had newly joined the town-guard were doing well for aim at distances from 300 to 700 yards. On October 17th Colonel Kekewich divided the town into four sub-districts for the maintenance of internal order, and strictly warned the people against any communication with the Queen's enemies. Rations of meat

were limited to one pound daily for each man; all roads out of the town were absolutely closed against exit or entrance except for persons with a permit or proof of good faith, and the sentries received orders to shoot all people attempting to force the barricades and other obstructions. The defences were daily strengthened, the townsfolk cheerfully joining in the work, notwithstanding loss of sleep and the decay of business. Miles of barbed wire were placed around the town; an armoured train patrolled the line of railway to north and south. The Boers, meanwhile, were surrounding the place, lifting cattle in various quarters.

We here turn aside for a moment to notice events at Vryburg, capital of British Bechuanaland, with a population of about five thousand, lying 145 miles north of Kimberley by rail. The fate of the little town was soon decided, with tragical result to the British commandant, Major Scott, who had faithfully served in the colony for twenty-two years. He had received instructions to resist the Boers, but resistance was found to be impossible. The majority of the inhabitants were Dutch, with strong Krügerist sympathies, and before the arrival of the enemy, soon after the middle of October, the magistrate announced to a large crowd, consisting chiefly of farmers of the district, that the police had decided to retire, that the volunteers would be disbanded, and that any one who might choose to accompany the police would be allowed to do so. People friendly to the British cause were soon fleeing west, north, and south in vehicles, on horseback, and on foot. Major Scott, already worn out with anxiety of mind, toilsome days, and sleepless nights, addressed the police and volunteers, and asked those to step forward who were willing to remain and fight. Only six men responded to this appeal, the police expressing the opinion that they had no chance against artillery. The police then rode out of the town, and about midnight, when the little column had halted for a brief rest, the silence of the camp was broken by the sound of a pistol-shot. It was found that Major Scott had ended his life by a bullet in the forehead from his revolver. The body of the hapless officer was buried on the veldt, between two spreading thorn-trees, and after the last rite, his successor in command, while the men stood "at attention", said a few fitting words concerning the loss sustained by the colony and the service. The Boers had by

this time entered the town, hoisted the Transvaal flag, and issued a proclamation declaring Bechuanaland to be a part of the South African Republic. Colonel Kekewich, on receiving the news, retorted with a proclamation warning all the Dutch in Bechuanaland and Griqualand West that their status as British subjects was unchanged, and that, if they joined the Boers of the Orange Free State or the Transvaal, or aided them in warlike operations, they would be treated as rebels against the Queen. We return now to the fortunes of Kimberley.

Before the last week in October the place was closely invested by the enemy, and news was with difficulty sent to the outer world. In the afternoon of October 23rd a haggard man on a brown horse crawled into the little town at De Aar Junction, made his way to the commandant's office, delivered a document, and then fell fainting to the ground. The brave and loyal fellow soon revived under care, and told his adventures since he left the beleaguered town. Viewed by Boer scouts when he was barely a mile outside, he was hotly pursued, but escaped by hiding in some thick bush. At a lonely farm, whose occupant was supposed to be "friendly", he sought a fresh mount, but the farmer was afraid, though willing, to help him. The despatch-rider then made his way across country to another farm in his own district, where his sweetheart was living. She came out to him with news that armed Boers were at that moment in the kitchen. He was forced to push on southwards until his worn-out horse fell and rolled upon him. In struggling to his feet he tore off two fingers of his right hand, which bled profusely until he bound it securely with his puggaree. Toiling slowly on until daylight, he obtained a fresh horse, by a bribe, from a farmer, and finally reached De Aar exhausted by hunger and loss of blood. His tidings was that at Kimberley "all was well" and the people cheerful; Mr. Cecil Rhodes, dressed like an Afrikander farmer, "moved about saying very little to any one".

The little defending force comprised four companies of the Loyal North Lancashire Regiment, two machine-guns, a battery of Royal Garrison Artillery, with six seven-pounder mountain-guns, a large party of Royal Engineers, and a detachment of the Army Medical Staff, with complete ambulance. The wind and dust on the exposed plateau were found very trying by those

who were new to life on the veldt. The good-will of the townsfolk to the troops was strongly marked, a typical incident being that which occurred to one of Colonel Kekewich's clerks, who, dining at a hotel near head-quarters, found that his score had been settled for him by a kindly citizen who had slipped away without waiting for any thanks. The defence of the mines and the costly machinery was entrusted to about two thousand carefully organized *employés* of the Company, under the command of Mr. Scott, V.C., a hero of the Zulu War, superintendent of the De Beers convict-station. Eight Maxims were in position on the ramparts formed out of the huge gray heaps of *débris*. The Volunteer Artillery had a battery of six seven-pounder "screw" guns, and were aided by drafts of Royal Artillerymen. The defending force was completed by 120 Cape Police, fine, bronzed, hardy men, admirable for scouting, patrolling, and outpost work. Every night the whole country around was lighted up for miles by powerful electric search-lights. Thus prepared, Kimberley calmly awaited hostile attack, and was also ready for offensive work.

On October 24th a vigorous sortie was made by a force including 270 Volunteers under Major Scott-Turner. On the way to Macfarlane, the second station on the line to the north, the British force encountered about 700 Boers, occupying excellent positions on the hills with well-served artillery. Two armoured trains aided our men, and they were soon reinforced by 150 of the Lancashires, and by two guns, two Maxims, and 70 mounted men under Colonel Murray. The Boer guns were soon silenced, the enemy's flank was turned to the north by the Volunteers, and when the foe were falling fast and evidently staggering under the assault, the Lancashires made a fine charge, clearing the kopje with the bayonet, and driving the Boers in headlong flight. The enemy's loss was very heavy, and their leader, Commandant Botha, was killed. This little victory, gained after four hours' fighting, cost the British force only three men killed and twenty-one wounded. Many hundreds of the townspeople witnessed the engagement, crowding the trenches and eagerly awaiting the return of the troops.

The presence and conduct of Mr. Rhodes were of great moral service to the defenders of Kimberley. His unruffled serenity

was displayed in his bidding an anxious resident, eager to get away, to "sit tight, as I do". As the centre of the social life of the town, he daily gave little dinner-parties at the De Beers offices, with abundance of iced champagne, and showed his contempt for the enemy's efforts, and his confidence in a successful defence, by starting to plant an avenue a mile long at the suburb of Kenilworth, to be called "Siege Avenue", composed of a double row of orange-trees, with espaliers for vines, on each side, all being backed by rows of pepper-trees. On November 1st, a tremendous explosion heard outside was due to the enemy's blowing up the Company's dynamite stores, seven miles away, near Macfarlane's Farm, the scene of the sortie-fight. About 35 tons of the explosive, worth £3500, were thus destroyed.

As the siege progressed, the place was bombarded from time to time with little effect, and there were many skirmishes outside the lines of defence. The Boers, whose numbers were unknown, but were assuredly great enough for bolder work than they ever engaged in, showed no desire for an assault, and confined themselves, apart from firing big guns and "sniping", to "lifting" horned cattle and donkeys near the town. One day the enemy's shells, mostly falling harmless on the débris-heaps and open spaces in the outskirts, broke a large cooking-pot in the town, causing an auction of the pieces, with a brisk market at two pounds for choice specimens. As a siege, the affair was almost a farce. At the end of November, on the fortieth day, the enemy were still engaged in a merely harassing fire and in raiding cattle. On November 25th there was some smart fighting outside, chiefly of artillery, during a strong reconnaissance made by the garrison. The enemy suffered considerable loss in killed and wounded, and eight prisoners were taken. On the British side, Major Scott-Turner, having his horse shot under him, was wounded by a bullet traversing the fleshy part of his shoulder, and some of our men were severely hurt by Martini bullets. On November 30th the defenders of Kimberley had to mourn the death, from another wound received on the previous day, of Major Scott-Turner, commanding the Light Horse. This gallant Scot was as kindly with his men as he was brave and energetic. Among minor incidents early in December, we hear of the Boers shooting large numbers of

springbok, the beautiful antelope of those regions, on the neighbouring farms, and of several of those graceful creatures being seen at Kenilworth, attracted thither by the British searchlight.

During December, there was nothing to report except reconnaissances, drawing much useless fire from the enemy, and the fact that "all was well in Kimberley". In the middle of January, 1900, we learned "by heliograph, via Modder River", that the enemy had heavily bombarded the place from all their positions, from dawn of January 16th until the next morning, directing their fire chiefly against the redoubts. After three months, the Boers were, as it seemed, no nearer to the capture of the diamond-mines or of their much-desired prey, Mr. Cecil Rhodes, than when they started on the enterprise. A new weapon was now brought into action for the defence of Kimberley through the enterprise of the De Beers Company. The dependence of the town upon that great organization is seen in the fact that on January 19th news arrived of their assistance of the food-supplies by the distribution of soup in large quantities. The relief-works started under their control employed four thousand natives in making roads and general improvements in the town at a weekly cost of over £2000 in wages alone. The whole sanitary work of the place was undertaken by the Company after the failure of the former contractors through the enemy's capture of mules and carts. When the main water-supply was cut off by the Boers at the intermediate reservoir, the Company provided fresh supplies. They raised a large corps of mounted men, made shells, and at last manufactured a thirty-pounder gun, which was named "Long Cecil", and was quickly doing excellent work against the foe, Mr. Rhodes himself sending off several shells. The whole wage-earning community of the Company, having become soldiers instead of diamond-diggers, received the same pay as before, as well as gratis food, the *employés* numbering about 6000 men from Natal. The military authorities showed wisdom and forethought in the regulation of supplies, not permitting any shopkeeper to take advantage of the siege, and thus enabling the community to live at normal prices, so far as the absolute necessaries of life were concerned, although fowls, eggs, groceries, and fruit were, of necessity, at famine-prices.

The untiring energy of Mr. Rhodes, who rose at 5.30 every morning, in his work for the population of about 50,000 in the besieged town, and his generosity to the needy, were very conspicuous. At the suggestion of Colonel Kekewich he made a garden of thirty acres in his model-village of Kenilworth in order to supply the inhabitants with fresh vegetables. It was he who organized a mounted force of 800 men, purchasing many of the horses at his own cost, and instituted in December a system of native runners and scouts to obtain information concerning the movements of the foe. He placed his herd of 2600 cattle at the disposal of the people, and before the end of the year they had all been killed for food. Mr. Rhodes, throughout the siege, lived at the Sanatorium, a large building erected by himself for convalescents, between Kimberley and Beaconsfield. It had been closed for some time before the siege, as it was in a very exposed position. He reopened it for his own use and that of some other residents, when he reached the town. The Boers made the building a constant target for their shells, which, however, never once hit the mark, though they were constantly flying around.

The shells from the foe, fired always into the town, and not against the defences, at an average of 280 per day, were far more harassing than destructive. At first, in order to give warning of the approaching missiles, the "hooters" blew three blasts, but this method was discontinued as being too trying for the nerves. On February 7th, near the end of the four-months' siege, the Boers got a new and powerful gun, a 6-inch Creusot, into position, discharging a shell of 108 lbs. This weapon, for a week, sent its terrible missiles ranging all over the town, at intervals of three minutes, smashing houses like egg-shells, and creating great alarm. Two days after its arrival it killed, in his bedroom, Mr. Labram, the chief engineer of the De Beers Company, a man of brilliant abilities, to whose skill and energy was due the construction of three armoured engines and a train; a great cold-storage place for food during the excessive heat; three thousand shells, and the breech-loading rifled gun above mentioned, with its carriage, cartridges, and shells. When the big gun began to bombard the place, a regular system of signalling was instituted. As soon as the

look-out man on the conning-tower saw the puff of smoke he waved a red flag, and the bugler standing by him blew the alarm. There was then about fifteen seconds before the arrival of the shell, and this gave time for people in the streets to dodge under a wall or other shelter. In front of the town-hall a policeman was stationed in an auctioneer's pulpit, and blew his whistle when he saw the red flag wave. Not many people were killed, but there were such marvellous escapes as a shell entering a room and falling under a baby's cot without exploding; another exploding under a bed containing an Indian woman with a baby four days old, bursting and setting the bed on fire, without any injury to mother or child; and a third falling into a room where a lady was in bed, just missing her hip, breaking the side of the bedstead into pieces, and burying itself harmlessly into the foundation under the floor. Bomb-proof shelters of various kinds were made in all parts of the town, from the rich man's verandah roofed with steel or old railway iron and covered in by double layers of sand-bags, to the poor man's hole in the garden or backyard, a mere kennel topped by the earth taken out. At the very end of the time of trial, Mr. Rhodes, on the last Sunday of the siege, during the usual cessation of fire, caused about 2600 women and children to be lowered for safety into the workings of the mines, with their little bundles of blankets and food. There they remained beyond the reach of harm from missiles until the day of relief. As regards supplies of food, we may record that no severe privation was endured, although Christmas-day was celebrated, not by feasting, but by the taking of all private stocks of food into military keeping, and the flesh of horses and mules was freely consumed.

Mafeking, the northernmost town of Cape Colony, lies on the Molopo River, about 17 miles south of the border, and about ten miles west of the Transvaal frontier. By the railway it is 870 miles from Cape Town, and about 230 miles from Kimberley. The smart little place has a race-course and a cricket-ground; the "Surrey" and other hotels; Anglican, Dutch, and Wesleyan churches; and is the head-quarters of the Bechuanaland Border Police, an admirable force already described in this record. In her isolation, and her need of defence against a numerous and pertinacious, though not very enterprising foe,

Mafeking was very fortunate in the commandant of her little garrison. Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell was born in London in 1857, seventh of eight sons in a family of ten. His father, the Reverend Baden-Powell, was a distinguished man in mathematical science, elected F.R.S. at the age of twenty-eight, and holding the Savilian Professorship of Geometry at Oxford from 1827 until his death in 1860. His mother, to whose admirable training in self-reliance the hero of Mafeking largely owes his distinction in life, was daughter of Vice-Admiral Smyth, a notable sailor and scientific astronomer. The famous soldier now under notice, one of the most vivid and attractive personalities of the age which he adorns, was of restless activity from an early age, a devourer of books, an eager hunter of knowledge in every form. At his school, Charterhouse, he was noted alike in scholarship and sports, in theatricals and in the chapel-choir; versatile, good-humoured, indomitably gay, he was equally admired and loved by his mates. Intending to enter at Christ Church, Oxford, he went up in a casual way for the army-examinations, and his career was settled when he came out second, without the special "coaching" which had aided most of his competitors, among 718 candidates for commissions. Joining the 13th Hussars in India in 1876, he served as adjutant with that corps there, and in Afghanistan and South Africa; he was on the staff in South Africa in 1887–89, being mentioned in despatches for operations in Zululand in 1888.. After a period of special service in Ashanti, in command of native levies, in 1895, winning a brevet lieutenant-colonelcy, he was chief staff-officer in the Matabeleland campaign of '96, gaining mention in despatches and brevet-rank as colonel, and in 1897 he was appointed to the command of the 5th Dragoon Guards. Author of books of high authority on pig-sticking (hog-hunting in India), reconnaissance and scouting, vedette-work, and cavalry-instruction, this wonderful man is perfectly at home in polo, big-game shooting, hunting, yachting, stage-managing, acting, singing, painting, etching, and drawing with either hand singly or with both at once. We shall see that, if ever a man was made for the work which, at a critical time in the history of a mighty empire, he was called to do, Baden-Powell and Mafeking, in her hour of extreme need, were precisely matched. The

magnetic, almost magical, influence which he exercised on all around him in the darkest hours of despondency was a main cause of the successful defence of the little town, one of the most remarkable achievements in modern military history, during the longest siege in living memory, with the sole exceptions of Sebastopol and Khartoum.

Among the defenders of Mafeking, lying open in a flat and guarded only by entrenchments and some redoubts, were Colonel Hore's force of irregular cavalry about five hundred strong, 200 Cape Mounted Police, the British South Africa Company's Mounted Police, and 60 Volunteers, with two seven-pounders and six machine-guns. Some hundreds of townsmen and a coloured force were also raised in due time. In preparation for attack, a number of houses were turned into hospitals, and the sisters of the convent, on receiving a telegram from the R.C. bishop permitting them to leave, all chose to stay to nurse the sick and wounded. A number of ladies also volunteered to remain for nursing, with the offer of providing delicacies for the sick. The women and children remaining in the town were placed for shelter in a laager two miles westwards of the chief buildings. The streets were barricaded with wagons, and every able-bodied man in the place carried a rifle. The defenders, before the beginning of hostilities, were reinforced by the arrival of some heavy guns, a large detachment of police, and half a battery of the Kimberley Artillery. On Wednesday, October 11th, the Boer forces under General Cronje, in pursuance of the ultimatum, crossed the frontier, and on the following day communication to the south was cut by the seizure of the railway. On the same day, the Boers caused themselves a heavy loss in the destruction of two truck-loads of dynamite which had been stored in the station-yard, and were now, under the commandant's order, pushed out by an engine to a distant siding. It was a most dangerous task for Perry, the brave engine-driver. At a mile or two out he came across some of the enemy, who opened fire. Uncoupling his engine, he ran back full speed for the town. The Boers, closing in on the trucks, thought that they were making prize of an armoured train, when one of their bullets, penetrating a case of dynamite, exploded the whole freight and wrought havoc in their ranks.

Perry was about a mile and a half distant at the time, and his engine was almost lifted from the rails, while he was forcibly flung against the side of the "cab".

On October 14th some sharp fighting occurred. About half-past five in the morning, a patrol under Lord Charles Bentinck, to the north of the town, was engaged with the Boers, and the armoured train was sent out to his aid. It was found that the enemy had retired before Bentinck, but they returned in force, and soon after six o'clock the train, conveying B.S.A. Police and Railway Volunteers, with two Maxims and a Hotchkiss, one on each of the three cars, came into action. The Boers, about six hundred strong, were on the right front, and the Maxim fire from the leading truck was replied to by their quick-firing guns and their 1-pounder Maxims. The artillery-work was very hot. The enemy soon retired, and the train steadily advanced. When the Boers resumed fire from their guns, the men who served them were worried as to the proper range by the train's moving to and fro on the line. Colonel Baden-Powell, wishing the train to return, sent out Captain Fitz-Clarence, an officer of the Royal Fusiliers (City of London Regiment), on special service, with his squadron of the "Protectorate Regiment", consisting of only partially-trained men who had never been in action. His troops were to cover the retreat of the armoured train, and the movement at once caused the engagement to become extremely hot. The enemy, in greatly superior numbers, made persistent efforts to turn the British flank, and the squadron was for a time surrounded. In this position of extreme danger, when he was hampered by wounded men whom he would not leave, and matters looked as if nothing could save the whole force being shot down, Fitz-Clarence displayed the coolest heroism. His personal bearing inspired his men with confidence, and by his bold and efficient handling of them he kept the enemy at bay until a message to Mafeking by the phonophore attached to the railway-telegraph brought out Lord Charles Bentinck with his squadron. Before mid-day the enemy retired with the loss of 50 killed and a large number wounded. The armoured train, on which only three men were slightly hurt, brought in all the British wounded, the loss sustained by Captain Fitz-Clarence

being two killed and fifteen disabled. The spirit of the defenders of Mafeking was shown by the fact that amongst the railway-detachment helping to man the lines to the north were two ladies named Davies, wife and daughter of a railway *employé*. They absolutely refused to take shelter in the women's laager, and wielded their own Lee-Metford rifles with skill against the foe.

This first engagement with the Boers, in which the conduct of all concerned was highly praised by the commandant in a general order, raised the spirits of the defenders. On October 16th a flag of truce came in from General Snyman, of the Boer army, with a message expressing the hope "that a surrender would be made in order to save further bloodshed", and stating that "we might now, if we wished, leave off firing". Baden-Powell's reply was to the effect that "as far as leaving off was concerned, we had not yet begun". The truce lasted until 4.45 P.M., and the inhabitants of the beleaguered town emerged from the shelter of sand-bags, redoubts, bomb-proofs, and cellars, to do a brisk trade in pieces of shells picked up in the streets, sold at some shillings each. Some of the boys did active service in the defence, one playing a man's part well at the loopholes of one fort with his rifle, and another loading the cartridge-belts for a machine-gun. On the night of Thursday, October 19th, there was an impromptu concert at Riesle's Hotel, where men in top-boots, breeches, and shirts, amidst a party of ladies, joined in the chorus of merry songs. Correspondence between Baden-Powell and General Cronje formed at times a feature of the siege which made the British public smile. In reply to a letter from the Boer general confessing his inability to carry the town by storm, and declaring his intention of bombardment from a siege-gun which was soon to arrive, the British leader informed him that the town was surrounded by mines, some arranged to explode of themselves, and others connected with headquarters. The gaol, he said, was chiefly occupied by the general's own countrymen, and over this a yellow flag was placed, to enable him to avoid firing on it. He further pointed out that, if the Boer general insisted on shelling a town containing harmless women and children, his action would afford a precedent for the British forces when they invaded the Transvaal.

The Boer commander did shell the town, and heavily, with siege-guns. On October 24th they opened fire, and at two o'clock a hundred-pounder sent a shell shrieking into the market-square. About five shells per hour were thrown from this weapon, and the intervals were filled up by the discharge of twelve-pounder Maxims, Nordenfeldts, Hotchkiss, Krupp, and other guns. One of the great projectiles wrecked three rooms at Riesle's Hotel. The enemy were entrenched at about two thousand yards' distance, beyond effective rifle-range, and the garrison and inhabitants, unable to reply to the heavy guns, had to dodge the shells as they best could, aided by certain signals given by horns blown from look-out places. On October 24th and the following day about 300 shells were dropped in the town without doing any serious damage. On this last day, under cover of the fire, the enemy attacked the town from all sides, their riflemen coming in very close, and were received with rifle-fire, Maxims, and the explosion of mines, retiring at last with heavy loss. On October 27th a fine attack on the enemy's trenches was made by a squadron of the Protectorate Regiment under Captain Fitz-Clarence, supported by the Cape Police under Lieutenant Murray. Fitz-Clarence led his men across the open ground and made a night-attack with the bayonet. A hand-to-hand fight took place in one of the trenches, while a heavy fire was concentrated on it from the rear. The Boers were driven out with heavy loss, the captain being the first man into the position, and accounting for four of the enemy with his sword, receiving in return a slight wound. The British loss was six killed and nine wounded, and at this slight cost the enemy were strongly checked in pushing forward their entrenchments, while a considerable moral effect was produced by the cold steel. For this achievement, combined with the one above described in connection with the armoured train, and his cool courage at a later sortie soon to be noted, Captain Fitz-Clarence was afterwards awarded the Victoria Cross, Baden-Powell referring in his report to the "extraordinary spirit and fearlessness displayed". On the last day of October a gallant feat of arms was performed during the hours of the morning-twilight by Colonel Walford and his detachment of officers and men of the B.S.A. Police. These troops were holding a small and

IN THE BOER TRENCHES

One of the surprises of the campaign was the clever way in which the Boers entrenched themselves. Time after time, and notably at Magersfontein, where the Highland Brigade suffered such a terrible disaster, they lay so well hidden that the British troops were close upon them before they suspected their proximity to the enemy. Then, before they could take cover or extend their lines, the attacking force were subjected to a withering fire from the trenches, with the result that the lists of casualties were swelled alarmingly. The illustration gives an excellent idea of the Boer marksmen and of their method of fighting.

From a Photograph 61

IN THE BOER TRENCHES.

almost unprotected fort, on a rising called Cannon Kopje, against an advance of the enemy, made under cover of four heavy guns and a hundred-pounder. It was the Boer intention, after getting their guns and attacking force into position during the night, to storm the British post at daybreak, and thence bombard the south-east part of the town and "rush" the place with a large number of men. The soldiers under Colonel Walford, under a cross-fire of artillery, not only held their position, but inflicted such losses on the enemy as compelled them to retreat. The British were assisted by the timely and well-directed fire of a seven-pounder under Lieutenant Murchison, and the Boers were so discomfited that they did not again come near the post. The victors in the encounter had to deplore the loss of the Hon. Douglas Marsham and Captain Kerr-Pechell, two officers described by their chief in his order of the day as "of exceptional promise and soldier-like qualifications".

We must now turn to a further notice of the marvellous man without whose presence Mafeking must assuredly have fallen a prey to the foe. The cavalry-officer, in the time of need, became an engineer of high order, making the town practically impregnable, and defying a great army under Cronje and Snyman by a series of trenches and cross-trenches constructed with the utmost ingenuity of device. His restless energy, tact, knowledge, and magnetic force of character, exercised for seven and a half months of anxiety and peril, made him the life and soul of the defenders and of the helpless persons who could only watch, wait, and endure. Ever on the alert, with one eye on the enemy, and the other divided between the town and "that nightmare", in the words of a correspondent, the native staadt, Baden-Powell could be often seen at day-dawn crossing the veldt on his return to town after a night-visit to all the works. Half an hour later he was on the roof with the glasses at his eyes, taking an early look at the foe. His constitutional walk was up and down before his quarters like one doing "sentry-go". At times he would be seen in his verandah writing his diary with his left hand. Again he would appear on the roof to have another look at the Boer besiegers, and, if all were quiet, he would trust the look-out men and retire to his nook for a dip into a novel, or for a stretch under his mosquito-curtain. The day was filled

up with the reception of reports and adjustment of differences; in conference with Lord Edward Cecil, his chief staff-officer; in learning from the D.A.A.G. the amount of food in store, and suggesting how it might be conserved and how much per head should be served out to each soul under his care. All this time eye and brain were busy with Snyman and his men, reading their thoughts, divining their plans, and scheming checkmates. Not an evening passed without a visit to the wounded in hospital; and in most cases a victim of the siege was buried in presence of his commander at the grave-side. On sentries he would steal out of the blackness of the night before they had time to challenge, and, after asking a question, or giving a suggestion and a cheery word, he departed as silently as he came. There were men on guard who told of a bearded stranger dressed in gray tweed, with the stature and bearing of the dreaded and beloved "B.-P.", strolling round the works and making such remarks as "Keep a sharp eye in that direction; you never know what may be stirring or where they are". It was always the commander, a very Napoleon in his keen vigilance and in his grasp of what was going on around him. Under all the strain and anxiety of his charge, the man was kept fresh and well by his happy temperament. He was described by a resident as "always smiling; a host in himself. To see B.-P. go whistling down the street, deep in thought, pleasing of countenance, bright and confident, is cheery and heartening, better than a pint of dry champagne. . . . If we are able to place the name of Mafeking on the roll of the Empire's outposts which have fought successfully for the honour and glory of Britain, it will be chiefly because Baden-Powell has commanded us."

It was part of this great man's general policy during his direction of the defence to be continually making attacks with the view of pushing back the enemy's rifle-fire, and so freeing the garrison and inhabitants from every danger except that arising from bombardment. On November 3rd Captain Goodyear, commanding an excellent squad of "Cape Boys", made a sortie and retook from the enemy a position in the Brickfields, from which their sharpshooters had made things very unpleasant in the town. Four days later a successful stratagem was carried out by a force under the direction of Major Godley, comprising

Captain Vernon's squadron of the Protectorate Regiment and some guns under Major Panzera. This last officer, Baden-Powell's principal engineer, belonged to the Harwich Division Engineer Militia, having previously served in the Artillery-Militia, and in the Matabeleland war of 1893–94. The British force, advancing under cover of night to the enemy's laager on the west of the town, fired half a dozen rounds, and then retired on their own lines. The Boers, believing that our men had withdrawn in confusion, came on within rifle-range of our trenches, and were met at a short distance with a heavy fire which drove them off in disorder, leaving their dead and wounded to be picked up later under the Red Cross flag. Only two men were wounded among the Mafeking force. The Bechuanaland Rifles under Captain Cowan took part in the engagement, which was their first "brush" with the foe. On November 18th there was some relaxation of pressure in the siege, through the departure southwards of General Cronje with a third of his command. Early in December, Baden-Powell greatly irritated Snyman by a letter to the burghers pointing out "the inevitable result of their remaining longer under arms against Great Britain. The British forces were arriving in large numbers; there would be no hoped-for foreign intervention. Mafeking could not be taken by sitting down and looking at it, as there were ample supplies for several months. They had better think of their families, their farms, and their own safety. His advice to them was to return to their homes without delay. His force would probably soon take the offensive."

The British leader fulfilled his promise of making another sortie, but unhappily without success, though the effort was most honourable to the men engaged. On December 26th an attack was made on Game-tree Fort, to the north of the town, with the object of pushing back the line of investment. The Boers had, beyond doubt, received notice from a traitor or a spy of what was intended, and during the night they had strengthened the works and doubled the garrison. The British force consisted of two squadrons of the Protectorate Regiment, one of the Bechuanaland Rifles, and three guns, assisted by an armoured train with a Hotchkiss and a Maxim, also conveying twenty men of the British South Africa Police. The men took up

their position under cover of the darkness before dawn, and fighting began at four in the morning with fire from Major Panzera's two seven-pounders and a machine-gun. The fighting-line then advanced towards the fort under a heavy fire of bullets, only to find the place impregnable except to heavy battering-guns. The parapet was loop-holed in triple tiers and roofed with a bomb-proof protection. There was only one entrance at the front, and this was mostly under ground, and only large enough for the admittance of one man at a time. The walls were too high for scaling except by ladders, and the gallant assailants suffered terrible loss as they swarmed round in vain efforts to effect an entrance. It was absolutely needful to retire, the men engaged having had 21 killed and 33 wounded out of 80, the former including Captains Vernon and Sandford, and Lieutenant Paton, while the brave Captain Fitz-Clarence was severely injured in both legs.

This disaster followed close on a Christmas-day celebrated with dinners and sports, a pleasant feature being the children's party and Christmas-tree, at which about 250 little ones were present, and, as a despatch stated, "a tremendous quantity of Christmas fare was consumed". New-year's Day of 1900 found the enemy vigorously bombarding the town, six nine-pounder shells being sent into the women's laager, with the effect of killing a little girl and wounding two other children. On January 4th the British guns, in a prolonged duel, completely silenced the Boer artillery for the time. A despatch of January 6th said, "We are making up our minds to stick this out as long as need be, and have food for another three months. The whole garrison is enraged at the enemy's dastardly violation of the rules of civilized warfare in continued firing upon the women's laager." A few days later, when Colonel Baden-Powell sent a remonstrance to Snyman about the shelling of the hospital, the Boers at once replied by again firing twice at the same building. The barbarous besiegers, on one morning early in 1900, played at the women's and children's laager for two hours with quick-firing guns, creating scenes of panic and consternation, and during the siege many children's lives were thus sacrificed, and many women were mutilated.

Among the incidents of the investment we may notice the

fact that Wessels, chief of the Baralongs inhabiting the native staadt or town, was deposed from his office by Baden-Powell and the Civil Commissioner, Mr. Bell, for his incapacity and vicious conduct, at a meeting of the tribe to which the councillors and petty chiefs were summoned. The food-question became weekly one of greater importance and more anxious care. Early in the new year, almost all food-stuffs beyond a few luxuries had been taken over by the military authorities, and the garrison was put on the reduced rations of half a pound of bread and the same weight of meat per day. Matches and milk were prohibited from public sale, and all supplies of biscuits, tea, sugar, and jam were "commandeered" by the authorities. Meal and flour were at 50*s*. per bag, potatoes fetched £2 per cwt., and eggs were sold at 12*s*. per dozen. Vegetables could no longer be obtained, and rice took their place upon the menus. Whisky was sold at 18*s*. per bottle, and inferior cigarettes at the same price per hundred. It will be seen that the people within the lines of Mafeking were reduced, before the long-deferred day of relief arrived, to great straits for food, and it is only just to assign a due share in the success of the defence to the admirable foresight and energy of the government contractors, Messrs. Julius Weil & Co., who laid in far greater stocks of provisions than were arranged for in their contracts. In January, 1900, Mafeking was already dependent for the bare necessaries of life on the stores and bonded warehouses of the firm, and in their hands lay the issuing of the daily allowance of bread and meat for the garrison, of forage for the horses, and of food for the native population. The natives were, from time to time, of great service in cattle-raiding by night among the animals belonging to the Boer foe. On two January mornings the hearts of the hungry in the town were cheered by the arrival of 24 and of 18 well-fed oxen, artfully selected and noiselessly detached, surrounded, and driven off to the British lines by the Baralongs, events celebrated, after due inspection of the prizes and report to the colonel, by feasting and dancing in the native town.

Tuli—known in earlier days as the British South Africa Company's "Fort Tuli"—is a small place in Rhodesia near the river Shashi, a tributary of the Limpopo, forming the northern

boundary of the Transvaal, from which the town lies about twenty miles distant. The fort and town were held by Colonel Plumer, of the York and Lancaster Regiment, on special service, who arrived there on October 11th, and a brave little band of mounted irregulars. The place was never seriously pressed by the invading Boers, who formed a camp with some hundreds of men near at hand, but were kept at bay by Plumer and his force. On October 31st that commander returned from an extended reconnaissance westwards, along and near the Limpopo, greatly reassuring the natives, after frequent raids made by the Boers, by his appearance at Maklutsi Junction. On November 3rd a British camp to the west was shelled by the enemy, with the effect of stampeding all the horses and mules of Colonel Spreckley's squadron, without injury to any trooper. There was desultory fighting at various points. Early in the same month about eighty of the British were attacked at a post in the west by a large force with two big guns, and bombarded for a whole day. The enemy pressed the attack until night, killing many horses, but doing no other damage. During the night, the British force stole through the Boer lines on foot and tramped back to Tuli, a distance of thirty-five miles. On December 1st Colonel Plumer, with a strong reconnoitring party, left camp, the enemy having by this time retired to the south, and two days later he and his men entered the Transvaal territory at the point where the Maklutsi River joins the Limpopo, to the south-west of Tuli. This invasion of Boer territory was a new and refreshing matter for British readers, wearied of Boers being, as it seemed, fixed on British colonial ground without any near prospect of being "shifted". After crossing the river, the British force marched through the veldt to a point on the coach-road about fifty miles north of Pietersburg. The reconnaissance could not be pushed further owing to the extreme drought. No Boers were seen at any point of the journey, and the party returned to Rhodes' Drift. The little column then took up a strong position at Pont Kopje on ground lately held by a large force of the enemy. A new advance to the south was intended, but it was stopped by a great rise in the waters of the Limpopo, and the force then returned to Tuli. The Boer forces in that district had left the region, and Tuli and Maklutsi were still garrisoned by Plumer and his

men, with patrols constantly reconnoitring in the Transvaal to watch for the enemy's return. We shall find the energetic British commander hereafter in this record making repeated gallant efforts for the relief of Mafeking.

KURUMAN, the smallest of the places in the north which were assailed by the Boers, has not the least honourable record among them for a brave defence. The village, in the British Bechuanaland portion of Cape Colony, lies out in hilly country about 80 miles due west of Taungs, which is near the railway, and lies about the same distance north of Kimberley. Until a few years ago, before the construction of the line, Kuruman was the best-known settlement in the Bechuana region, being a missionary-post favoured with an unfailing supply of water. In this district, and in that around Taungs, the native population is largest, the Europeans being chiefly found in and near Vryburg and Mafeking. In November, the Free State burghers began to "commandeer" for recruits and supplies, and favourers of the British cause hastened southwards with all their goods that could be removed. The mission-station, formerly the centre of the famous Dr. Moffat's long work among the natives, was the point of resistance to the enemy's attack. When the Boer commandant informed the magistrate, Captain Hilliard, of his intention to occupy the place, that officer replied that he had orders to defend it, and forthwith gathered twenty natives and thirty half-castes. The mission-chapel was barricaded. The Boers advanced to within a mile of the little town, near to a small redoubt on the east held by eleven men under Denison, of the Intelligence Department, and Corporal Gast. When the foe approached the town, they received a volley which inflicted some loss and caused their hasty retirement. They afterwards returned, and kept up a heavy rifle-fire during the whole day, being reinforced by nearly a thousand men. The Union Jack, when the summons to surrender was rejected, had been hoisted amid great cheering, and a stout resistance was made at all points. A redoubt to the west of the British camp was attacked, but the Boers were met with a severe fire, under which their commandant fell. On November 14th it was found that the enemy had strongly fortified themselves in commanding positions during the night, and firing was kept up till after dark, the Boers losing a few men.

The next two days were quiet until night-time, when the British fired for the purpose of inducing the Boers to waste their ammunition. On November 17th the foe opened with a well-directed fire, riddling the town-buildings and the camp. The bombardment was resumed on the next day, the British guns not replying except when there was a visible mark. After six days of siege the enemy retired, having lost many men in killed and wounded. The little garrison behaved with great courage, volunteers carrying out water and rations to the redoubts under a heavy fire. The siege was renewed in the following month, the news on December 28th being that "Kuruman was still holding out, with 123 Britishers keeping at bay Boers numbering eight hundred". It was impossible, however, for the defenders to resist continued bombardment, which was resumed on New-year's Day, 1900, and was directed chiefly at the police-barracks. The fight lasted until six in the evening, and, when many of the defenders were killed and wounded, a surrender was inevitable. Four captains—Hilliard, Bates, Denison, and Magte—and eight subalterns, with about a hundred men, including seventy natives, thus became prisoners, after a resistance most honourable to all concerned. The capture of Kuruman was a solitary Boer success in their siege-operations. With rare exceptions, as on one occasion, to be shortly seen, at Ladysmith, the enemies who boasted of their intention to drive out British troops from South Africa, lacked courage for any rush to close quarters even at vast odds of numbers in their favour, and their attempts to capture British garrisons ignominiously failed.

The force under Sir George White's command at Ladysmith during the period of its investment, bombardment, and assault by the Boer army under Generals Joubert and Schalk Burger, comprised, as infantry-battalions, the 1st Gloucesters, Leicesters, Devons, Liverpools, Manchesters, and Royal Irish Fusiliers; the 1st and 2nd King's Royal Rifles; the 2nd Royal Dublin Fusiliers, Gordon Highlanders, and Rifle Brigade; and Natal and Johannesburg Volunteers. The cavalry were the 5th Dragoon Guards, 5th Lancers, 18th and 19th Hussars, Special Corps Mounted Infantry, and corps of Imperial Light Horse. The artillery consisted of six batteries of Royal Field Artillery, and naval guns, with a naval brigade from H.M.S. *Powerful* to work

them. The enemy fired, off and on, on most days during the siege, having heavy guns, including 94-pounder Creusots, of long range, against which the naval guns, most skilfully served by our blue-jackets, were of admirable service to the safety of the position.

On November 8th there was heavy firing from the enemy's guns, and on Thursday, November 9th, at four in the morning, the Boers made a determined attack, under cover of their big guns, on the ridges and kopjes held by the British outposts. Our men, reinforced from the camp, replied hotly, in skirmishing order, to the Boer rifles. The attack threatened all sides of the town, but the main assault was delivered in the angle where the Free State and Newcastle railway-lines diverge. The position was held by the Johannesburg Volunteers, the King's Royal Rifles, and the Rifle Brigade. After a first repulse, the Boers retired beyond a deep trench which they had made in the open ground in front of our lines. The Rifle Brigade, advancing at the double, took possession of this trench unobserved by the enemy, and when the Boers returned with the horses which they had gone to fetch from distant places of shelter, they were received, almost at the edge of the trench, by volley after volley from the Rifles, who sprang suddenly to their feet. For once the crafty enemy were themselves outwitted, and the effect was staggering. With heavy loss they broke and fled across the flat open ground, severely scourged by shell from the British guns. On the south side of Ladysmith, the Manchesters did good work, under cover of our guns, in getting within easy range, unobserved, of some hundreds of Boers posted in a ditch. The British unexpected fire caused heavy loss. The enemy were finally repulsed at every point. Just before noon the people in the town, and the Boers outside, were both astonished by the slow discharge, at regular intervals, of twenty-one rounds of shell from the guns, large and small, in our Naval Battery, carefully laid with the enemy's artillery for their mark. It was a royal salute in honour of the Prince of Wales' birthday, followed by loud cheers, beginning with the blue-jackets, and running round the lines of outposts and fighting-men, shaken into light echoes by the jagged rocks, rolling in mightier chorus through the camps, onward by river-banks, and into the town. The Boers flashed

from hill to hill the signal "What do you make of it all?", as interpreted by the British experts holding the key. Twelve hours of intermittent fighting had caused the besieged a loss of only five killed and twenty-four wounded, mostly by shells.

As the siege went on, the Boer bombardment was at times severe, and Sir George White had to complain of shell being fired at the hospital and other buildings flying the Red Cross flag. On November 24th the enemy, by throwing shell among twenty spans of trek-oxen sent to graze in the veldt to the west of the British camp, headed the animals towards their own lines. A body of Mounted Infantry of the Leicesters, striving to head the cattle back, was received with heavy rifle-fire, and at last two or three Boers, dashing down the slope, rounded up herd after herd with the skill of "cow-boys". About 250 valuable draught-oxen thus fell into the enemy's hands. Up to that time the total British loss by bombardment was 83 persons killed and wounded, including a scientist, Dr. Stark, who was killed on November 18th by the explosion of a shell in front of the "Royal Hotel" where he resided. On November 30th, just indignation was aroused by Boer bombardment, from a new 6-inch gun mounted on Little Bulwaan Hill, in front of Lombard's Kop, directed at the Town Hall in Ladysmith. The Red Cross flag flying on the tower indicated its use as a hospital, and the building was clearly visible from the enemy's position. The Boer gunners could plainly see their first two shells bursting to right and left of the building, yet they persisted in their cowardly action. Many of the patients had been removed into a tunnel excavated near at hand, when a third shell crashed through the wall of the main building, killing one patient, and wounding nine other persons, including two medical officers. This barbarous violation of the usages of civilized nations had no possible excuse, seeing that the Town Hall was not in the direct line with any important camp or defensive work.

A few days later the British garrison was enabled to retaliate on the foe, not in their fashion, but with legitimate work, in a bold enterprise planned and brilliantly executed by Sir Archibald Hunter. About 11 o'clock on the night of Thursday, December 7th, that general left camp with 100 Imperial Light Horse under Colonel Edwardes, 100 Natal Carabineers, 400 Border Mounted

and Natal Rifles, and detachments of Royal Artillery and Engineers. The object aimed at was the new weapon on Little Bulwaan, officially styled "Gun Hill". The force was wholly on foot, without any troop-horses or officers' chargers, for the five-mile expedition out. Lord Ava, attached to Brigadier Hamilton's staff, joined the party as a volunteer with his rifle. The men were divided into three parties, 200 being under Hunter's personal command. The night was one of gloom that made rocks, trees, rough knolls, and deep dongas one shapeless black. Strict silence was enjoined. Fourteen guides, under Major Henderson of the Intelligence Department, went ahead, followed by the column. Past the outposts on Helpmakaar Hill, north-east of the town, where the Devon men could be seen resting under arms; across open veldt into a hollow with stunted thorn-bushes, and over dongas with sandy banks, the adventurous troops blindly followed the guides, and at about twenty minutes to two in the morning of Friday, December 8th, found themselves at the foot of the hill.

All were at their proper posts, in admirable order worthy of trained troops. The ascent began, over and among boulders rounded and worn smooth by the storms of countless years, the ground being also so steep at times as to need crawling on hands and knees. The Imperial Light Horse were on the left, the Carabineers on the right. About half-way up, the sentry of a Boer picket, hearing if not seeing the line of crouching figures, cried in huskily vibrating voice, "Wie Kom dar?". Getting no reply, he challenged twice again in louder tones, and then fired his rifle blindly ahead. The picket at once fired a volley, and shouted to comrades on the ridge, "The English are on us; shoot! shoot!" A hurried fire came from the crest of the hill, but the enemy fled fast when they heard a British cheer followed by the words "Fix bayonets". Begun by Major Karri-Davis, the order ran along among men who carried no such weapons, but they struck the butts of their rifles on the rocks, made the utmost possible clatter, and cheered as if thousands of men were in the force. Only ten of the assailants had been hit, including four of the guides, before the enemy fairly ran away. The Imperial Light Horse, as they crossed the hill, came on a Maxim, which was taken back to Ladysmith, and

a 12-pounder, which was soon ruined by the engineers, using bracelets of gun-cotton. The chief prize was the obnoxious Creusot, found in a redoubt to the right, and soon rendered useless by the same explosive. On the return to camp, General White, at special parades in the afternoon, gave warm praise and hearty thanks to all the corps engaged in this brilliant achievement, with particular mention of the Natal men "for conduct honourable not only to their own country and colony, but to the whole empire".

The inspiriting effect of this success was quickly manifested in a similar enterprise, again illustrating how well Sir George White understood his duty of not being content with a merely passive defence of his position, and also displaying the mettle of the soldiers under his command. The emulation of the "regulars" had been aroused by the action of the Colonial irregular troops, and Colonel Metcalfe, of the 2nd Rifle Brigade, requested the commander to allow his battalion to make an attack on the Boers at Surprise Hill, to the north-west of our lines, and silence the 4·7 inch howitzer there stationed. Permission was readily granted, and the matter was left entirely to Metcalfe, aided only by guides from the Intelligence Department. On the night of Sunday, December 10th, that officer started with about 450 men by the dim light of a new moon sinking behind heavy clouds. Two small detachments of artillery and engineers carried with them charges of gun-cotton. The party lay down in a convenient donga for over an hour until the crescent moon, becoming clear of clouds, had sunk behind the Drakensberg crags, and then moved silently to the railway-line, where the barbed fences were cut by the officers with wire-nippers. The foot of Surprise Hill was reached, and a slow toilsome ascent began. Once more, half-way up, a Boer challenge rang out. The order to "fix swords" was given in loud tones, and with cheers the companies rushed forward, reaching the crest of the hill before many shots could be fired by the foe. The battery was entered, but it contained neither gun nor gunners. A few yards off sounds were heard, and a sergeant led his section on, finding the howitzer with a few Boers around it as escort. The men threw down their arms in token of submission, but were swept off with the bayonet. For half an hour, the troops poured steady volleys into a deep dark

valley near at hand, while the engineers strove to destroy the howitzer. They succeeded at last in making a deep fracture, rendering the weapon useless, and the riflemen retired down hill, hearing on the way the loud explosion of a magazine discovered by the engineers. On the return to camp, the flanks and rear were assailed with heavy rifle-fire; and our men, in the intense darkness, became mingled with parties of the enemy. There was much sharp work with the bayonet, and the Rifles did not cut their way through until eleven were killed, and forty-three wounded, the latter including Colonel Metcalfe and four other officers. The price paid for the destruction of the howitzer was heavy, but against it must be set the saving of life which would have perished through its action, and the moral effect produced by such daring work against a besieging force.

As time wore on, the beleaguered garrison suffered severely from enteric fever, one of the victims being Sir George White, who, happily, soon recovered, and from dysentery. The weather became intensely hot as the midsummer of that region drew near, and on December 20th the thermometer showed 104 degrees shade-temperature. The enemy's bombardment increased in severity, and on December 21st, during a heavy fire, several shells in succession fell near the general's house, and one of the missiles completely wrecked a room near that where Sir George lay ill. No personal injury was caused, and head-quarters were soon removed to another part of the camp. On the following day, one shell killed six men of the Gloucesters and wounded nine as they sat at breakfast, and five officers of the 5th Lancers were slightly wounded by another. The trouble of men's minds in Ladysmith had been increased by tidings of the failure at Colenso of the first great effort of the relieving army. There were many marvellous escapes from injury under the hot fire which followed the Boer success on the Tugela, one instance being that of a shell from the great gun on Bulwaan bursting in the Gordon camp, between the goals of a foot-ball match played between the Gordons and the Imperial Light Horse. Sir George White and several members of his staff were among the spectators, but no one was hurt, and the players, filling up the pit made by the huge missile, finished the game. It was pleasant for readers at home to learn at this time, that, amidst shells and fever, the town had "plenty of pro-

visions", and that, in readiness for Christmas Day, the "men had been served with plum-puddings and cigars". Fatal mischief caused by the foe followed fast on the festivities of the season at Ladysmith. On December 26th a shell from the Creusot gun on Bulwaan dropped in the officers' mess of the Devons at Junction Hill, on the north, killing a captain and a lieutenant, and wounding six other subalterns. The year 1899 closed in quiet save that the Boers broke their customary "Sabbath" rule by sending shells among our herds of cattle on Cæsar's Camp, to the south, and by "sniping" the British outposts at long range. The day was rapidly drawing near when the gallant British general and his brave men were to have Boers to deal with in a new capacity—that of bold assailants in a vigorous attempt to make an end of matters at Ladysmith by storming the British lines of defence. We must now, however, turn to the operations undertaken for the relief of the invested and bombarded town.

After the surrounding of Ladysmith, the Boers, in considerable force, advanced southwards on their enterprise of conquering Natal. On the morning of November 2nd, their guns were shelling Colenso, the fire being directed against Fort Wylie, the work defending the bridge across the Tugela. There was only a small British force in the town, and the enemy were judged to number five thousand men, in commandoes from both the Boer states. After a sharp skirmish to the north of the town, where the enemy strove to cut off an outpost of the Durban Light Infantry, and were repelled with the loss of a dozen men killed, the little British garrison was compelled to withdraw in presence of the enemy's long-range guns, to which they had no means of replying. The women and children crowded the trains to Pietermaritzburg and Durban, while the troops, including the Durban men and a detachment of the Dublin Fusiliers, left by train at night with most of the stores and the tents and kits. The Boers then entered the town and began to "loot". The British forces concentrated on Estcourt, 27 miles south of Colenso, near the confluence of Bushman's and Little Bushman's Rivers, the former crossed by a railway-bridge of five spans. The Orange Free State government at this time issued a proclamation annexing the district of the Upper Tugela to their territory. Sir W. Hely-Hutchinson, Governor of Natal, thereupon put forth a counter-proclamation, declaring the

Free State document to be null and void, and called out for active service the men of five rifle associations in the Durban division of the colony. On Sunday, November 5th, a brilliant little piece of work was done by two companies of the Dublin Fusiliers, under Captain Romer, who went forth in an armoured train to reconnoitre towards Ladysmith. Close to Colenso the enemy, in considerable force, were sighted near the line, and the Dublins opened a brisk fire, to which the Boers replied. They were forced to retreat over the road-bridge, and then a strong detachment of the British entered the town, while the train steamed slowly towards the station. The troops went to Fort Wylie and brought back four wagon-loads of shells, provisions, and other stores.

The officers then in command of the troops in Natal, apart from Ladysmith, were Generals Hildyard and Clery. Major-general Hildyard, C.B., had gone out from command of the 3rd Brigade at Aldershot. After serving in the Royal Navy for five years, this officer, entering the army in 1867, served in the Egyptian campaign of 1882, being present at the battles of Kassassin and Tel-el-Kebir. He was Commandant of the Staff College from 1893 until 1898. Major-general Sir Francis Clery, K.C.B., had a great reputation as a theoretical tactician, being Professor of Tactics at Sandhurst from 1872 to 1875. His active service included work in the Zulu War of 1878–79, and in Egypt and the Sudan from 1882 to 1888. In 1896 he became Deputy-Adjutant-general to the forces. On Wednesday, November 15th, there occurred, a few miles south of Colenso, a striking episode of war in connection with an armoured train. The train was not really fit for use as an instrument of war, having no proper outlets for the muzzles of Maxims, nor trap-doors at the side for the admission of men. Made up of an ordinary engine and the usual iron trucks of the Natal Government Railway, protected by boiler-plates with loopholes cut for rifles, it was a mere death-trap which, with true British rashness and contempt for the foe, was daily used to reconnoitre the country as far north as Colenso, without any cavalry-escort to scout near the line and prevent or detect any hostile meddling with the rails. At 5.30 in the morning the train started on its usual mission from Estcourt, made up of a truck carrying a 7-pounder muzzle-loader, served by four sailors; an armoured truck with part of a company of Dublin Fusiliers; then, in the

middle, the engine and tender; next came two more armoured cars or trucks with more Fusiliers, a company of the Durban Light Infantry Volunteers, and a small civilian "break-down" gang; lastly, a truck conveying tools and materials for repairing the road. There were in all 120 men, under the command of Captain Haldane, D.S.O., an officer who had been on Sir W. Lockhart's staff in the Indian Tirah Expedition, and was lately recovered from a wound received at Elandslaagte.

Frere station was reached in about an hour, and there a patrol of the Natal Police reported that all seemed quiet in the neighbourhood. Captain Haldane then decided to push on cautiously for Chieveley. As the train reached the station, clear signs of hostile presence came into view. About a hundred Boer horsemen were cantering southwards a mile from the line. The telegraphist wired back to Colonel Long at Estcourt, and the train was ordered to return to Frere Station. On the return-journey, within two miles of Frere, a body of the enemy was seen on a hill commanding the line at a distance of 600 yards, and the little expedition was soon under fire from two large field-guns, a Maxim discharging a stream of small shells, and from riflemen lying on the ridge. The iron sides of the trucks rang with the patter of bullets as the driver, putting on full steam amidst a shower of shells, swung round the curve of the hill, ran down a steep gradient, and then sent the train into a huge stone placed by the foe on the line. A perfect wreck of the two trucks now leading, the second containing the Durban Light Infantry, was thus caused; the third truck got wedged across the line, and the rest of the train kept the metals. The Boer guns, having changed their ground, reopened at a range of about 1200 yards, and then began a brave contest of Britons against overwhelming force. Mr. Winston Churchill, son of Lord Randolph Churchill, acting as war-correspondent of the *Morning Post*, was conspicuous for coolness and courage in efforts to clear the line, but only the engine was saved, steaming slowly away with as many wounded men as could be piled thereon. The fire of the Boers increased in severity as part of their prey seemed about to escape, and a fourth of the British force was soon disabled. The remaining infantry, running down the line after the engine, made for some houses near the railway-station about 800 yards away,

when a wounded soldier, in direct disobedience to the positive order that there was to be no surrender, waved a pocket-handkerchief. The enemy at once stopped firing, and riding down from the hills, called for a surrender, though some of our soldiers, knowing nothing about the "white flag" being shown, were still firing. At close quarters against such odds there could be no chance of successful defence, and in the end about seventy, including Mr. Churchill, became prisoners of war. That gentleman afterwards made his escape from Pretoria, and on December 26th was back in camp at Chieveley. Captain Haldane, shot in the shoulder, was also captured.

After the destruction of the armoured train and the capture of the British survivors from the fight, the Boers advanced towards Estcourt from the north-west, in several bodies some hundreds strong. On November 18th, one party of about 150 men, moving towards the railway-bridge half a mile north-west of the town, was driven to hasty flight by a shell from one of our naval guns at nearly five miles' range. The missile burst in the middle of a crowd of Boers, and an instant later several horses were seen galloping riderless away. About this time a fine body of Mounted Infantry, Bethune's Horse, 500 strong, mostly men from the Johannesburg district, arrived as a welcome reinforcement. The enemy, however, came on in force, and advanced on Mooi River, south-east of Estcourt, foraging, plundering houses and stores, and driving off cattle. On November 21st the Boers had arrived near Nottingham Road, a summer resort on the railway about 35 miles south-east of Estcourt, and were within 40 miles of Pietermaritzburg. Their guns had been shelling the British camp on Mooi River, but on November 19th a considerable body of the enemy in that district, engaged in raiding, were cleverly flanked and almost surrounded by Major Thorneycroft, with three squadrons of the valuable "Horse" called by his name, aided by some Natal Carabineers, and two Maxims. Smart fighting was kept up from 4 p.m. until dark, when the enemy retired, the British force having only two men wounded. A new leader for our forces now arrived on the scene of action in the person of General Buller, as Commander-in-chief in South Africa, who landed at Durban on November 25th, and at once went with his staff to the front. Sir Redvers Henry Buller, G.C.B.; K.C.M.G.;

V.C., had gone out from his command at Aldershot, assumed in 1898. Born in 1839, he entered the 60th Rifles in 1858, and gained a great reputation for skill and resolution in the Ashanti War of 1874 and the Zulu War of 1878–79, serving at home as Adjutant-general from 1890 till 1897.

On November 26th news came that General Joubert was falling back from Mooi River towards Ladysmith. Some smart fighting had already occurred near Estcourt, which was still held by our troops under General Hildyard. On November 22nd he made a sortie against the Boers in position on Beacon Hill with entrenchments and four guns. The attacking force was composed of the West Yorks, the East Surreys, the Natal Royal Rifles, Durban Light Infantry, a squadron of the Imperial Light Horse, the 7th Battery R.A., and a naval gun, with a detachment of blue-jackets. The enemy's chief post, Beacon Hill, rises to the height of 1500 feet, and their forces held the rough stony country, interspersed with hills, lying beyond it for a distance of seven miles south of the town. The Boers were, in fact, blocking Hildyard's communications to the south, and it was imperative that they should be "shifted". The British attack was well conceived and boldly executed. The main body, keeping touch with the railway, reached Willow Grange station, and with great exertion the naval 12-pounder was dragged to the top of one part of Beacon Hill into a commanding position for service. At this time, about three in the afternoon, there was a terrific storm, with rain in torrents, and at times great hailstones. After some hours, the weather cleared, and shots were exchanged between the enemy's artillery and our guns, and the Yorkshires, climbing one side of the position, did some firing against the enemy's lines. The day's operations closed with more heavy rain, and our men, in their thin khaki uniforms, without their overcoats, passed some hours in misery from wet and cold. At 2 a.m. on the next morning, November 23rd, the troops were standing to arms, and the Yorkshires and East Surreys, working up the hill, drove the enemy, by their mere approach, to a second ridge, leaving behind them several ponies, about 200 saddles, and some other equipment. As daylight came, the enemy were seen in force over 2000 yards away. In the end, the Boers advanced in such force, and their guns so outranged the British field-artillery, that our men

retired to Estcourt, and the enemy seemed to have had the advantage.

Nevertheless, the Boers, deeming their position unsafe between the British forces at Estcourt and Mooi River, retired northwards two days later, and our railway-corps was enabled to repair the broken line to the south and north of Estcourt. The enemy, in their retreat, wrecked the railway-bridge of six arches at Frere, conveying the line across a wide stream. They also destroyed the great railway-bridge over the Tugela at Colenso, a work over 200 yards long erected at a cost of £80,000. The Frere bridge was quickly replaced by a trestle-work erection and a diverted embankment constructed by the staff of the Natal Government Railways. When the British force reached Frere on November 26th, it was found that the Boers had been guilty of damage, done to the houses in the little town, of a singularly petty and senseless character. If they had burnt the dwellings or made them useless for shelter, they would have committed an intelligible action in depriving their foes of quarters. What they did was to tear out and scatter broadcast the leaves of books; to pull drawers out of chests and break them up; to rip open mattresses and spread the flock in equal depths over the floors and stairs; to burn photographs, break the glass of windows and pictures, stuff clocks upside down into flower-pots, and pull up the garden-flowers and throw them in at the windows. Their conduct, in short, was that of naughty children with no small share of savagery in their disposition.

For some days after his arrival, Sir Redvers Buller was busily employed in arrangements for guarding his line of communication and in personal inspection of the country beyond Chieveley, under the protection of clouds of Light Horse patrols. Some 4·7 (40-pounder) naval guns arrived, as a needful match for the enemy's long-range weapons, and were viewed with special interest by the infantry whose path they were to clear. A general advance for the relief of Ladysmith was at hand, and the troops in Frere Camp were excited by the prospect. The positions of the enemy around Colenso were ascertained through frequent reconnaissances of mounted men, and it was known that they occupied posts of great natural strength on kopjes near the town, and especially in great entrenchments

beyond the Tugela River. The British troops were enjoying themselves in camp, thronging the banks of a *spruit* or stream, from morning till night, and bathing, in the gayest of spirits, at what they styled "Margate Sands". Their hilarity was soon to be exchanged for depression caused by disaster and defeat.

General Buller, at his head-quarters in Chieveley Camp, between Frere and Colenso, had been forming the resolve and making the arrangements which led to the Battle of Colenso, or Battle of the Tugela, fought on December 15th, 1899. We must here take a review of the troops under his command. On December 12th, the force at Frere Camp, destined to advance for the relief of Ladysmith, amounted to about 20,000 men. Of infantry, there were, firstly, General Hart's (the Irish) Brigade, composed of the Inniskilling Fusiliers, the Dublin Fusiliers, the Connaught Rangers, and the Border Regiment; secondly, General Hildyard's (the English) Brigade, comprising the 2nd battalions of the Queen's (West Surrey), East Surrey, West Yorkshire, and Devons; thirdly, General Lyttelton's (the Light) Brigade, including the 3rd Battalion 60th Rifles, 1st Rifle Brigade, Scottish Rifles, and Durham Light Infantry; fourthly, General Barton's (the Fusilier) Brigade, made up of the Scots, Irish, Welsh, and 7th Royal, Fusiliers. The cavalry were the 1st Royal Dragoons, and the 13th Hussars. The Mounted Infantry were composed of one squadron Imperial Light Horse, Bethune's M.I., Thorneycroft's M.I., the Natal Carabineers, Natal Police, M.I. of 60th Rifles and Dublin Fusiliers, and three squadrons South African Light Horse. The Artillery comprised the 7th, 14th, 64th, 66th, and 73rd Batteries R.A.; two 4·7 and fourteen 12-pounder naval guns, with the Naval Brigade of 250 officers and men.

The general position of the enemy was known, but their strength in men and guns was, beyond doubt, underrated, and their wiliness in devising obstacles for assailants was to become matter of painful experience for the British leader and his brave officers and men. An attempt was to be made, by a frontal attack, for the capture of a position of strength impregnable to all assaults except those of a great force, or to an attack in front combined with outflanking movements executed by large

bodies of men aided by many guns. At four o'clock in the morning of Friday, December 15th, General Buller moved out of his camp at Chieveley with his whole force, intending to make the passage of the Tugela at one of the two fordable places, which were two miles apart. The hills where the enemy were believed to be lying had been previously bombarded for two days without drawing a single shot in reply, and the lyddite from our naval guns had been, to a great extent, thrown away. The Boers had quitted the high ground, and entrenched themselves near the banks of the river and on low-lying kopjes to the north. The most serious matter for the British force, as it proved, was the occupation by the Boers of some entrenchments extending for a few hundred yards, hidden by scrub, on the south side of the river. At daylight the British force was drawn up at the top of the plain falling gently to the Tugela. Where the plain disappeared, the high-banked river ran across the British front, in a fairly-straight line, at the foot of the hills beyond. Down the middle of the plain, rather to the east, ran the line of railway. East of the railway, but south of the river, a point to be carefully noted, is the great hill called Hlangwana Mountain. The plain in that direction was bounded by a ridge dropping away to the south. Beyond the river was seen a cluster of reddish-brown ridges behind the village of Colenso, Fort Wylie standing on the smallest ridge, the one nearest to the Tugela. All these ridges were furrowed with lines of entrenchments one behind the other. Beyond the ridges rose kopjes growing higher and more complex in shape, some of conical form, others flat-topped, as they receded towards Ladysmith, until they culminated in long flat-backboned Umbalwana (Bulwaan), frowning with its formidable gun down upon the beleaguered town which Buller was come to save. West of Fort Wylie and its cluster of ridges, but a little farther back from the river, ran a chain of hills of moderate height, the most prominent being known as Grobler's Kloof. At that point the river, turning north and then south, makes a loop enclosing a plain on the British or south side of the stream, and troops entering the loop would be thus exposed to fire from three directions. On the British side of the river was a rising ground at the southern end of which our naval battery was placed, and

this rise ran down to the Tugela so as to make the left wing of the army invisible from the right.

On the left, west of the railway, and opposite the drift or ford, was Hart's Brigade; to his right were the 64th and 73rd Batteries; to the right again, in the centre of the British position, were Lyttelton and his men; then came the naval guns; more to the right again, divided by the railway, was Hildyard's Brigade; then, east of the railway, the 14th and 66th Batteries and six naval guns; then Barton's Brigade, and, most easterly of all and far to the right, Lord Dundonald with the Mounted Infantry, supported by the 7th R.A. Battery. The plan of Buller's attack was simple enough. General Hart was to cross the Tugela by the drift at the top of the loop, and then march eastwards along the north bank to the iron foot-bridge across the Tugela. Hildyard was to go straight for the bridge. Lyttelton was to support the two brigades thus engaged. Barton was to aid Dundonald in the attack on Hlangwana Mountain on the right. A few minutes before six o'clock the battle began in our naval guns pouring lyddite on to the Boer ridges, and from the brown hills rose smoke and earth and dust, while the roar of the explosion echoed and re-echoed among the heights. The 12-pounders, with their shorter crash of sound from the shells, raised other palls of dust and smoke above the ridges, and Fort Wylie was soon seen, amidst wreaths of vapour from the shrapnel, to be knocked about into a shapeless mass. Not a shell nor a puff of rifle-smoke came in reply from the Boer position. The battle began with a mistake, continued in a blunder, and ended in a disaster for the British force.

The naval guns had only fairly begun their work, when the crackling and rattling sound of rifle-fire was heard from the far left, two miles up-river from Colenso. General Hart had brought his brigade into action far too soon, before the naval guns had duly prepared the way. He had sent them on in wrong formation, marching them down to within a few hundred yards of the river in quarter-column, and there halted the main body, a broad target for the Boer guns. The Dublin Fusiliers, in the first line, with instructions to hold the river-bank whilst the crossing was made, opened into extended order, and rushed for the point of the river-loop. Then came the first flash from

the opposite hills, and a shell dropped among the extended lines. The Dublin men were soon under the fire of guns and rifles from the front, and of rifles on each flank, and they and their supports, the Connaught Rangers, were suffering fearful loss. They were all on open ground, without cover, and it was in vain that the Inniskillings and the Border men came up in support, backed by the fire of the 64th and 73rd Batteries over their heads from the rear. When the river was reached by those who were left, there was no ford to be found. The Boers had dammed the stream, and for the time destroyed the drift. Some of the British plunged into the deep water, and many were drowned either through the weight of scores of cartridges which they carried, or by entanglement in barbed wire laid in the river. During all this terrible time not a Boer could be seen, so cunning, so complete, was the cover whence the hail of bullets came. A few brave men reached the northern bank, but there was nothing for it but retreat to the south side, whence Hart was now, after utter failure, and the loss of 523 men in killed, wounded, and missing, withdrawing his men out of range. We turn to the centre-battle.

General Hildyard pressed forward to the road-bridge at Colenso, and his leading battalion, the East Surrey, occupied the railway-station and the houses near the bridge under a heavy fire, and carried a Boer trench with a rush. Beyond that point it was impossible to go, in face of the enemy's shell and bullets, and the men could only cling to what they held until the order to withdraw came in consequence of the disaster to the guns. In the centre, as we have seen, were the 14th and 66th Batteries R.A. and six naval guns. Colonel Long, who commanded the artillery at Omdurman, was in charge of the eighteen guns in the centre at Colenso. He had a theory that, for effective fire, you must get near to the enemy with your weapons, and he, in spite of orders to open fire at two thousand yards' range, to cover the advance of the infantry, went on with the two R.A. batteries, and Colonel Hunt, their commander, until they were within five hundred yards of a shelter-trench of the Boers on the south side of the Tugela. Beyond the trench was a hedge of trees, and beyond that, the deep river-bank—all bristling with Boer riflemen. The men were unlimbering our guns for action, when a

signal-shell from the foe dropped amongst them, and the batteries were at once enveloped by a hail of bullets. Men and horses fell down just as they stood. With heroic courage, officers and men, for nearly half an hour, served the weapons as they could, and then there was silence in the British batteries. The horses lay dead in heaps; nearly every officer was slain or disabled. Behind the guns there was a donga, or small ravine, and another donga 300 yards to the rear of the first. Most of the naval guns, under Lieutenant Ogilvy, of the *Terrible*, were to the right of the rear-most donga, and were exposed to a hot fire at range such that the Boer bullets cut right through horses and ammunition wagons. One of the guns was upset in a donga, as the blue-jackets moved the weapons about in search of better ground, but the loss of men was surprisingly small. At the two R.A. batteries, Colonels Long and Hunt were both wounded, and the few survivors who could walk fell back for shelter to the donga behind the guns. The twelve weapons stood there alone and, as it seemed, abandoned. On came, however, to the rescue the Devons and the Queen's and the Scots Fusiliers, from Hildyard's and Barton's brigades to the right, and ran forward, line after line, to the shelter-trench, and some beyond it, over the steep edge of the river. Some slaughter was made among Boers who stood their ground, but no attempt to cross was possible, and the men finally withdrew to the British lines.

Meanwhile, brilliant attempts to save the guns were being made. General Buller, about ten o'clock, seeing the trouble in the centre, rode off towards the guns with all his staff and the escort of Natal Police. When the party reached the naval guns, they were under a hot fire of Boer bullets. The general was grazed in the ribs; Captain Hughes, the staff-doctor, was killed by a shell; the horses of an A.D.C., Lord Gerard, and of one of the escort, were shot. Three officers made a most gallant effort to bring away the guns. These were Captain Schofield, Buller's A.D.C.; Captain Congreve, of the Rifle Brigade; and Lieutenant Roberts, only son of Lord Roberts, an officer of the King's Royal Rifles, and of Sir Francis Clery's staff. Roberts soon fell, struck in three places, with a mortal wound in the stomach, and died on the following Sunday. Congreve went down, hit in the leg; Schofield and a few brave surviving gunners brought back two

SAVING THE GUNS AT THE TUGELA

At the battle of Colenso a great disaster befell a portion of the British artillery. Two field-batteries and several naval guns under Colonel Long advanced towards the river in order to get within effective range. Suddenly a deadly fire was poured in upon them from the Boer trenches, and they discovered that they had gone too far. The men struggled gallantly to take their guns back into safety, but their horses were shot down. Several brave attempts were made by officers and men from different parts of the field to come to their assistance, but in the end ten of the guns had to be abandoned. It was in one of these attempts that Lieutenant Roberts was killed. Captain Schofield and some drivers managed to save two of the guns.

JOHN CHARLTON.

SAVING THE GUNS AT THE TUGELA.

guns. From the 7th Battery R.A., far to the right, came Captain Reid, with a team of wagon-horses and riders, in another heroic, but vain, effort to rescue some, at least, of the other ten guns. Nearly every horse was shot, and Reid, returning to his own battery with a bullet in his thigh, stayed there, covering the retreat of the mounted brigade, until half-past three in the afternoon. The ten guns were, perforce, left on the field, and were taken by the Boers. Some were, it is said, rolled into the river; others were, it is certain, used against our troops at a later day. The naval gunners brought off their 12-pounders safely. All the native drivers had fled, and the sailors manned the bullock-teams, thumping and kicking the animals in the ribs to get them along, and using up their small store of Kaffir words of abuse. Twenty-eight oxen were killed by the Boer fire, a fact which is sufficient to enable the reader to appreciate the storm of death to which the troops were exposed.

The action on the right needs brief notice. Lord Dundonald, with the Mounted Brigade, made a frontal attack on Hlangwana Hill, and his men were received with a sudden enfilading fire, delivered by an invisible enemy from both sides of a gully up which they were advancing. Thorneycroft's men and the Natal Carabineers suffered severely. The total British loss in the battle of Colenso was 1147 men killed, wounded, and missing. The loss of Lieutenant Roberts was especially lamented by his comrades and by his countrymen at home. He was under 28 years of age, smart, brave, and beloved by his fellows. His distinguished father and Lady Roberts had, with visible pride in their only son, taken leave of him a few weeks before at "Waterloo" in London, as he started for Southampton on his way to the front. The previous service of the young hero had been in India, with the Waziristan expedition of 1894–95, and the Chitral Relief Force in 1895. On the following day (December 16th) there was an armistice until midnight for the burial of the dead. The wounded were borne on stretchers by the hundreds of coolies to the ambulances, and thence conveyed to the field-hospital at Chieveley, seven miles distant. Sir William MacCormac, the eminent surgeon, and Mr. Treves, of the London Hospital, had gone out to put the best of skill and experience at the service of our stricken men, who were well tended by an efficient staff of

doctors and nurses, furnished with the most suitable appointments and apparatus which money could procure. It was, at this time, a striking fact, testifying at once to medical and nursing skill and care, and to the nature of the climate in South Africa, that, of two thousand men who had been sent to Durban and Cape Town for tendance after wounds, seven hundred were, within a few weeks, back at the front, facing the enemy in renewed vigour and high spirits.

On December 19th, two of our guns opened with lyddite shell on the iron road-bridge at Colenso, at about 800 yards' range, and in three hours practically destroyed it by knocking out one span. The weapons were handled by the Naval Brigade and some of the Natal Naval Volunteers. The enemy's position beyond the Tugela was bombarded with lyddite for some hours on the following day, but no response was made by the Boers. On Christmas Day the troops in Chieveley Camp had athletic sports under a broiling sun, and enjoyed a good dinner at night. The Naval Brigade, with the usual hilarious spirit of British tars, pulled effigies of John Bull and President Krüger through the camp on a gun-carriage to the music of popular airs. On December 27th, Sir Redvers Buller was joined by Sir Charles Warren, commanding the Fifth Division, about 10,000 men, which had arrived out during the month at Durban and Cape Town. The new arrival, Lieut.-general Sir Charles Warren, K.C.B.; G.C.M.G., was born in 1840, and entered the Royal Engineers in 1857. He was well acquainted with the scene of warfare, having been Civil Commissioner in South Africa in 1876–77; in command of the Diamond Fields Horse in the Kaffir War and Griqualand West during 1878, and in the same year leading troops against the Bechuanaland rebels. In 1879 he commanded the Northern Border (Rhodesia) Expedition, and in 1884–85 headed the Bechuanaland force. We may here note that a Sixth Division was sent out in December to the scene of warfare, under the command of Major-general Kelly-Kenny, an officer born in 1840, who entered the 2nd Foot in 1858, and served in China in 1860, and in the Abyssinian War of 1867–68. In 1897 he became Inspector-general of Auxiliary Forces and Recruiting.

We shall now take a brief review of the situation of affairs in South Africa at the close of the year 1899, before dealing with

the extraordinary demonstration due to the events of the first half of the month of December. There were three scenes of war-like operations. In the centre, General Gatacre, stemming the tide of Boer invasion in Cape Colony, had received, as we have seen, a severe check at Stormberg on December 10th. In the west, as has been recorded, Lord Methuen, during his advance to the relief of Kimberley, had been defeated at Magersfontein on December 11th, and brought to a complete stand. Four days later came Buller's severe repulse in Natal. Three defeats of British generals, one in each of the chief scenes of conflict, apart from Ladysmith, had occurred within a week. No such series of reverses to our arms had been known during the long reign, or, indeed, during the nineteenth century. It is needless to describe the venomous and vehement exultation of the worse class of people in Continental nations. For those manifestations of malignity, due to envy of our great position, the British public throughout the world-wide empire were fully prepared, and heeded them, in truth, not at all. It would be in vain to deny that we were, at the outset, staggered by such a succession of blows. Then came the vigorous reaction in which, as a friendly and sensible Russian critic who knows us well declared, "the Briton, when he meets with disaster, sets his teeth and squares his shoulders". Those British subjects who, in their own souls, and from our whole history as a nation and an empire, know the moral stuff of which we are made, took a cheerful view of affairs, lamenting the brave dead, but proudly confident that they had not died for their country in vain. The Boers had, by their very successes, sealed their own doom. They had done more than they knew, or could imagine, at Stormberg, at Magersfontein, and at the Tugela. They had wounded the pride of the proudest, and the most patient, and determined, and dogged, and enduring people ever seen in the world. The enemy had, as they were soon to learn, aroused a whole vast empire in a contest which could have only one end—the political annihilation of the two Boer states.

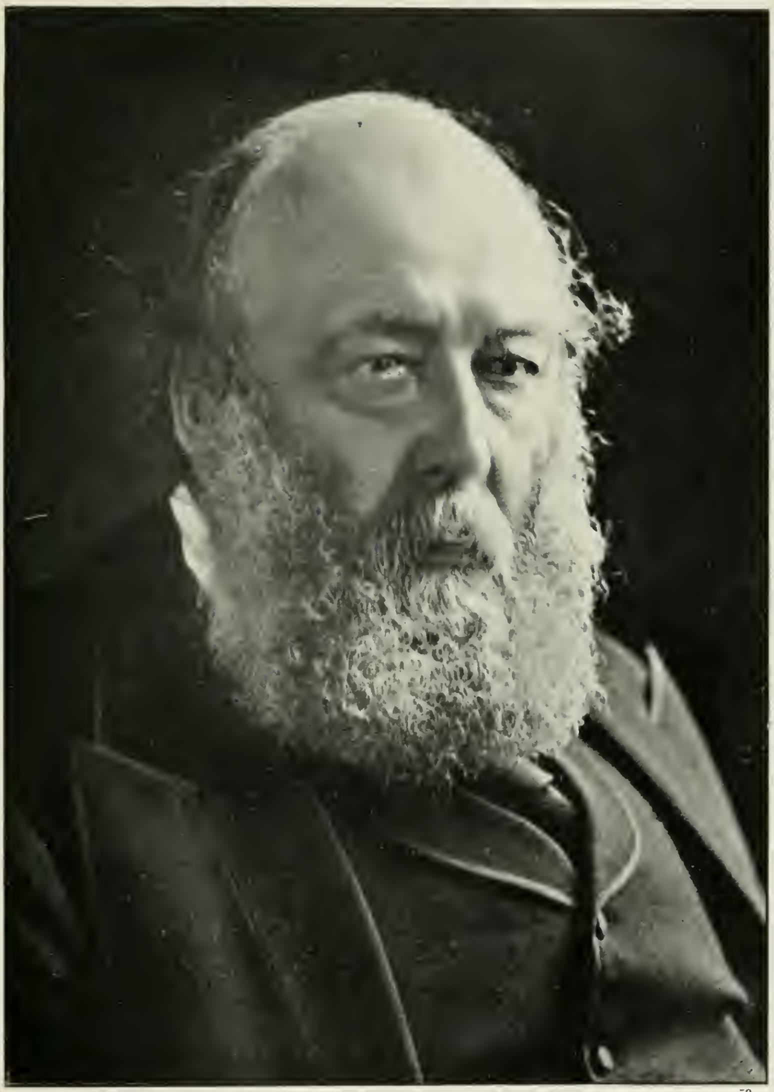
The days which followed the arrival of the news of events in South Africa during the "Black Week" ending on Saturday, December 16th, were marked by a national and imperial uprising without parallel in our history. The tidings of the gallant Buller's failure, with the loss of guns, reached the War Office

in London between one and two o'clock on the morning of December 16th. Lord Salisbury, fully alive to the serious nature of the position, promptly summoned a meeting of the Committee of National Defence, and, after consultation with Mr. Goschen, First Lord of the Admiralty; Lord Lansdowne, Secretary of State for War; the Duke of Devonshire, and Mr. A. J. Balfour, resolved to call to the aid of the empire the talents and experience of Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener. The hero of the "March to Kandahar" was appointed to the supreme command of the forces in South Africa. The victor in the Sudan became his Chief of the Staff. It was known that these distinguished men were prepared for cordial co-operation in those capacities, and the news of their being placed in charge of affairs at the front was hailed with joy by patriotic Britons. No time was lost by the men chosen for the task of turning the tide in our conflict with the skilful and stubborn foe. Lord Roberts, ever ready at duty's call; deeply grieving, as his countrymen grieved, for the loss of his only son; sailed from Southampton for Cape Town on Saturday, December 23rd. Lord Kitchener, who was up the Nile, at Shellal, when the evil tidings arrived, reached Alexandria with his A.D.C., Major Watson, on December 21st, leaving Colonel Sir Francis Wingate, the recent victor over the Khalifa, in charge, as Acting, and, as it proved, his successor as actual, Sirdar of the Egyptian Army. Embarking in the cruiser *Isis* for Malta, Kitchener and Watson were thence conveyed in a swift man-of-war to Gibraltar, in order to meet Lord Roberts on board the mail-steamer for the Cape, which specially called on this occasion at our great fortress in Spain. Lord Roberts and his staff, with Major-general Kelly-Kenny, arrived at Cape Town on January 10th in the *Dunottar Castle*.

Britons at home, and their fellow-subjects in the greater colonies, made an immediate and noble response to the demand upon their energy and patriotism. A moment of dismay and disgust was followed by the stern resolve to work and fight harder than ever. With a very few disgraceful exceptions, the whole empire rose up in a magnificent outburst of loyalty and devotion to the common cause. At home, the auxiliary forces of all ranks were enthusiastically forward. The embodiment of forty thousand Militia for garrison duty at home and abroad was

LORD SALISBURY

Lord Salisbury was born at Hatfield in 1830, and was educated at Eton and Oxford. He entered Parliament in 1853, and in 1866, on the formation of Lord Derby's third administration, was appointed Secretary of State for India. He took part in the conference at Constantinople, which was expected to settle the dispute between Russia and Turkey; and at the end of that war, having become Foreign Minister, he insisted on the treaty which Russia had forced upon Turkey being submitted to a congress of Powers. He accompanied Disraeli to the congress at Berlin, and on the death of that statesman became the recognized leader of the Conservative party. He became Premier as well as Foreign Secretary in 1885, and has held this position since 1886, with one break between 1892 and 1895. In 1900 he was returned to power for a fourth term.



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ROBERT ARTHUR TALBOT GASCOYNE-CECIL, K.G.
THIRD MARQUIS OF SALISBURY.

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attended by the voluntary offer of thousands of that force for service at the front. An appeal to the Volunteers for aid was met in such a spirit that the orderly-room of every regiment linked to a line-battalion in the South African Field Force was flooded with offers from men anxious to join the selected companies. The War Office authorities were asking for about nine thousand men to reinforce the Regulars. Four times that number of the rank and file were eager to take the field, and the officers were ready to go to the front, as it seemed, almost to a man. The Yeomanry, a body including many whose services as Mounted Infantry or as Cavalry had already been offered and declined, found their opportunity at last, and "Imperial Yeomanry" were speedily enrolled in large numbers. The need of men equipped as Mounted Infantry appealed at once to the sporting, fighting, adventurous, and patriotic instinct, taste, and spirit of thousands of young men in all classes of society, and the eagerness which was displayed to bear the burdens and to face the hardships and perils of war was a triumphant proof that the manhood of the nation was as sound and vigorous as ever, and a complete answer to the timid people who had croaked about the country being corrupted and enervated during a lengthy period of prosperity and peace. Rich and poor alike were conspicuous in this time of test and trial. Clerks and artisans were ready, without a second thought, to surrender posts of service on the chance of reappointment on return, if return there were for them, from South Africa. The employers of such men, in many instances, undertook to keep open situations, and at least one wealthy head of a great company expressed his readiness to provide young men in their employment with means to purchase a horse and the needful accoutrements for service in the Imperial Yeomanry. From every quarter of Great Britain tidings poured in of Volunteers and Yeomanry coming forward in scores and hundreds at their country's call. At the Inns of Court; in North London and in the Surrey suburbs; in the Home Counties, in the West of England, in Wales, in Lothian, and in Aberdeen, on Tyneside, and on the Channel coast, the same enthusiasm in the cause of the empire was displayed. Hundreds of men of wealth and leisure were found eager to abandon the safety, ease, and comfort of existence at home in exchange for

the trooper's saddle and the rain-swept veldt. In the end, twenty battalions of Imperial Yeomanry went out to the war from all parts of the United Kingdom, with officers including a large part of the nobility and country gentlemen of the realm. The Corporation and citizens of London were eagerly and joyously forward in the time of stress and strain. Before the lapse of ten days from the repulse at Colenso, that great municipality and the City Companies and merchants and other men of business had voted and subscribed the sum of £75,000 for the equipment of a regiment of 1400 fighting-men, including 600 mounted men, styled "The City of London Imperial Volunteers", dressed, like infantry of the line, in khaki. The London Scottish and the Inns of Court Volunteers furnished at once a proportion of this force, which included a field-battery and a machine-gun section, the whole body being under the command of Colonel W. H. Mackinnon, with Captains Trotter, of the Grenadier Guards, and Orr, of the Royal Artillery, as his staff-officers.

The people and governments of the greater colonies, in a noble spirit of loyal devotion to the sovereign and the common cause, swiftly showed their appreciation of the needs of the empire. The five Australian colonies and Tasmania prepared a new contingent of Mounted Infantry, numbering 1100 men, in addition to half a field-hospital (60 men) and a field-battery with 180 men. New Zealand soon sent off a force of about 240 men with four Hotchkiss guns. The Australasian troops despatched to the scene of warfare, from the beginning of the struggle, comprised men, including an "Imperial Bushmen's Contingent", in such numbers as to employ the services of over 150 officers and 14 nursing-sisters, from New South Wales; Infantry, Mounted Infantry, and Mounted Rifles, with over 70 officers, from Victoria; contingents from South Australia, West Australia, and Queensland with about 70 officers; infantry, and a mounted contingent (Bushmen's Corps), with eleven officers, from Tasmania; and Mounted Rifles, "Rough Riders", and other horsemen, with about 90 officers, from New Zealand. Colonel Lumsden's Corps, named after its commandant, of the Assam Valley Light Horse Volunteers, comprised mounted men from various parts of India, with 13 officers, and a contingent of Mounted Infantry came from Ceylon. The Cabinet of the

Dominion of Canada, on receiving the news from South Africa, promptly caused the voting of a second contingent, consisting of three field-batteries, each of six 12-pounder breech-loaders, and four squadrons of Mounted Rifles, making about 1250 men of all ranks. Of the rifles, two squadrons were composed of the North-West Mounted Police and "cow-boys" or ranchmen. The other two were selected from the Royal Canadian Dragoons (regulars) and the Militia Cavalry of the Dominion. The enthusiasm aroused throughout the vast territory of the Empire in North America was unbounded, and the Militia Department was overwhelmed with offers for service in South Africa. In all, apart from a corps to be specially mentioned, the Dominion despatched infantry, mounted rifles, and artillery in such numbers as to require the services of about 150 officers and 8 nurses. We may here note also the large colonial and Indian contributions to the various war-funds raised in the home-country, of which the chief fund, started at the Mansion House, came to exceed a million sterling. We must give special notice to the loyal munificence of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, G.C.M.G., High Commissioner in Great Britain for the Dominion. This venerable and eminent millionaire, well known in Canadian political history as Sir Donald Smith, raised a force of 400 mounted men and officers, armed, equipped, and conveyed to the scene of warfare entirely at his own expense. This fine body, recruited in Manitoba, the North-West, and British Columbia, consisted entirely of single men, expert marksmen, at home in the saddle, thoroughly efficient as rough-riders, fighters, and scouts. The Militia Department aided in the selection, armament, and general equipment of this valuable reinforcement, the horses being all procured from the North-West Territory. The thirty officers came mostly from the North-West Mounted Police and the Canadian Militia. We turn to India. Some of our Continental critics had looked for trouble there at a time when the Imperial army had been diminished in strength. No trouble for the Empress of India, or for her loyal subjects arose in that quarter. The native princes were eager to assist us. The rulers of Kashmir and Jodhpur offered to send troops and horses to South Africa. The Maharajah of Merwar placed every horse in his state at the disposal of the Government.

Such was the attitude, such were the efforts, of subjects of the British Crown in all parts of the world, away from South Africa, at a time of need in the contest waged against the corrupt Boer oligarchy of Pretoria and their allies in the Orange Free State.

We must now see what was done for the empire in Cape Colony and Natal by the loyal part of the population. There can be no doubt that, as already intimated, Mr. Krüger and Mr. Steyn, in their audacious defiance of British power, relied upon the probability of a general rising against our authority in Natal and Cape Colony. In both colonies there was a considerable display of sympathy with, and some active aid afforded to, the invaders of British territory. This was, however, confined to certain disaffected districts mainly peopled by Dutch farmers and townsmen, and the general loyalty of the Queen's subjects in South Africa is abundantly proved by the fact that many thousands of men took the field in support of the Imperial forces. The numerous contingents included Bethune's Mounted Infantry, with 30 officers; the Border Horse, 25 officers; Border Mounted Rifles; Brabant's Horse, named after one of the most brilliant soldiers of the day, the commanding officer, Brig.-gen. Brabant, C.M.G., with nearly 70 officers; the Cape Mounted Rifles, under Lieut.-col. Dalgety, with 35 officers; Cape Pioneer Railway Regiment, with 34 officers; Cape Town Highlanders, 18 officers; Marshall's Horse, composed of the 1st City (Grahamstown) and Uitenhage Volunteer Rifles, with 26 officers; Commander-in-chief's Bodyguard, under Major Laing; District Mounted Rifles, 21 officers; Duke of Edinburgh's Own Volunteer Rifles, 31 officers; Durban Light Infantry; Eastern Province Horse, 7 officers; French's Scouts, 3 officers; Frontier Mounted Rifles, 6 officers; Gatacre's Scouts; East Griqualand Mounted Rifle Volunteers, 4 officers; Transkei Mounted Rifles, 11 officers; the famous Imperial Light Horse, already noticed, with nearly 60 officers; Imperial Yeomanry Scouts, 3 officers; Kaffrarian Rifles, 25 officers; Kenny's Scouts; Kimberley Light Horse; the Kimberley Regiment, composed of the Diamond Fields Horse and Kimberley Rifles; Kitchener's Horse; Komgha Mounted Volunteers, 5 officers; Loch's Horse, 13 officers; Montmorency's Scouts, 3 officers; Natal Volunteer Brigade, Carabineers, Field Artillery, Mounted Rifles, Royal Rifles, Volunteer Medical and

Volunteer Veterinary Corps, Nesbitt's Horse, with 26 officers; Orpen's Horse; Prince Alfred's Own Cape Artillery, 5 officers; Prince Alfred's Volunteer Guard, 9 officers; the Bechuanaland Protectorate Regiment, under Lieut.-col. Hore, Major Godley, and 12 other officers; Queenstown Rifle Volunteers, 13 officers; the famous Rhodesian Protectorate Regiment, under Colonel Plumer, already seen in this record; Rimington's Guides, with 9 officers; Roberts' Light Horse, named after the Commander-in-chief, with 40 officers; the South African Light Horse, 39 officers; Struben's Scouts; South African Mounted Irregular Forces; Tembuland Mounted Rifle Corps, 4 officers; Thorneycroft's Mounted Infantry, 3 officers; and Tucker's Scouts. The number of officers here given is not complete, as in some instances the subalterns are, from lack of information, omitted. Some of the commanding officers and majors were imperial officers on special service. The fact remains that, of over 600 officers, the vast majority were colonials, well able to contrast British methods of rule with the "Krügerism" which was seeking to supplant them, and resolved to resist to the utmost the efforts of unprincipled ambition.

As regards the reinforcements sent out from the British Isles before and after the crisis of mid-December, we may note that the Fifth Division (Sir Charles Warren's command) was composed of the 1st South Lancashire, 2nd Royal Lancaster, 2nd Lancashire Fusiliers, 1st York and Lancaster, 1st Yorkshire, 2nd Royal Warwickshire, 2nd Dorset, and 2nd Middlesex, as Infantry; with the 14th Hussars and Composite Regiment of Household Cavalry; and two batteries Royal Field Artillery and one howitzer-battery. The Sixth Division (Lieut.-gen. Kelly-Kenny's command) comprised the 2nd Bedfordshire, Royal Irish, Worcestershire, Wiltshire, East Kent, and Gloucestershire battalions, with the 1st West Riding, 1st Oxfordshire Light Infantry and three batteries Royal Horse Artillery. The Seventh Division, under Lieut.-general Tucker, included the 1st King's Own Scottish Borderers, Lincolnshire, and East Lancashire battalions; with the 2nd South Wales Borderers, Norfolks, Cheshire, Hampshire, and North Staffordshire, and three batteries Royal Field Artillery. The extent of the force in the field—by far the greatest ever despatched from British ports in the same space of time during our history—may be estimated from

the fact that, in addition to all men hitherto mentioned, there were serving in South Africa, in January 1900, 15 companies (5 Fortress, 8 Field, and 2 Railway) of Royal Engineers, the First Division Telegraph Battalion, a troop Bridging Section, a Balloon Depôt and Sections; 36 companies of the Army Service Corps; 19 companies Army Medical Corps, and 6 companies Army Ordnance Corps, and that, in addition to all the above, there were also in South Africa, or nearing the shores, the 7th Dragoon Guards, 8th Hussars, and 17th Lancers, a siege-train and 1136 officers and men of Royal Garrison Artillery, a howitzer-brigade Royal Field Artillery, and 11 battalions of Militia. To crown all, the War Office, in the last days of January, sent out to the scene of warfare a needed reinforcement of artillery, comprising 72 field-guns (18 howitzers), with 3710 men and 2210 horses, the largest contingent of artillery ever despatched (by sea) in ten days from any part of the world. At the same time, the depletion in the ranks of battalions, due to the dire effects of warfare and disease, was made up by strong reinforcements from the Reserves at home, the men of which important force promptly responded to the summons, while recruiting furnished so many young men that, with most of the home-forces engaged abroad, the barracks were filled to overflowing. Such were the results of the reverses in which envious foreign observers of the struggle hailed "the beginning of the end" for the British Empire.

END OF VOL. IV.